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ABSTRACT

Designed as Phase I of a project directed toward the eventual establishment of multi-purpose, cooperative, local organizations concerned predominately with the socio-economic development of low income rural families in northwest Florida, this survey project was conducted in six counties which were selected according to rurality, incidence of poverty, and racial composition. Identification was sought of the perceived institutional and individual incentives and constraints which affect the adoption of new ideas and economic practices by rural low income families. In order to develop profiles of psycho-socio-economic resources of the target population, a 3-part pre-tested, questionnaire was used by trained field researchers in face-to-face interviews with 586 heads of households. Computerized analyses of the findings revealed 21 background, behavioral, attitudinal, and psychological characteristics which were typical of the low income population. Attitudes and receptivity of the population generally indicated a positive atmosphere for the introduction of new ideas and increased job opportunities. (JD)

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PERCEPTION OF INSTITUTIONAL INCENTIVES AND CONSTRAINTS BY THE POOR IN THE ACCEPTANCE OF NEW IDEAS AND ECONOMIC OPPORTUNITY PROGRAMS

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September 22, 1977

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PREFACE

Increasing public criticism of the current anti-poverty programs in terms of their impact on the reduction of poverty is pressuring policy makers to take a second look at these efforts. Additionally, the assumption that such programs are transferable from the urban to the rural populace has not been substantiated. Also, an awareness of the necessity for public decision makers to base policy formulation in the area of poverty on empirically tested evidence rather than political expediency seems to be responsible for an emphasis on designing and testing alternative and/or supplementary public assistance measures. This change in the stance of public officials and lawmakers (for example, the attention drawn to socially less relevant research by Senator Proxmire's Golden Fleece Award) appears to have influenced the research thinking of social scientists who no longer seem to consider the undertaking of mundane research issues as professionally unrespectable.

Recognizing these concerns, Florida A & M University instituted the research program in the area of rural poverty in 1972. The main thrust of this program is to empirically test alternative measures to welfare programs to reduce the impact of rural poverty.

The present study forms Phase I of a more comprehensive three-phase research project entitled "Institution Building as a Strategy to Reduce Rural Poverty in Florida." Phase II will be the identification of viable small-scale economic enterprises suitable for adoption by low income rural people, and Phase III will be implementation of such enterprises along with the development of institutions in low income target communities.

Several people at various stages of the study were instrumental in providing professional assistance and administrative facilities. To mention all of them by name may require more space than is available here. However, we would like to express our thanks to the following: County officials for providing needed information about the counties; research investigators for their patience and conscientious efforts to follow the survey instructions; the respondents for their generous cooperation; Mr. Virgil Elkins and Mr. George Henry of the Cooperative Extension Services and Mr. Hubert Thomas of the Department of Community Affairs, for assistance in staff training; Dr.

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Edward Moe of the Cooperative State Research Service for help in the design of the project; and Dr. Bill Peters, coordinator of the Cooperative State Research Service at Florida A & M University for administrative facilities. We would, in particular, like to acknowledge the valuable assistance provided by Dr. Marilyn Swears in extensive editing of the manuscript and writing of the final Chapter. Mrs. Betty Adams again exhibited her usual skills in professionally typing the manuscript.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This introductory chapter is intended to set the stage for the presentation of research findings. The chapter includes a brief description of the nature of this project, including its background, purpose, objectives, and methodology. In addition, to facilitate ease of reading, a section is included which provides an overview of the format of this report.

Background, Purpose, and Objectives of Project

This report contains research findings of a fifteen-month project designed as Phase I of a more comprehensive project entitled "Institution Development as a Strategy to Reduce the Impact of Rural Poverty." The larger project will be a major effort directed toward the establishment of multi-purpose, cooperative, local organizations concerned predominantly with the socio-economic development of low income rural families in selected communities in northwest Florida.

The ultimate project, which is developmental in nature, could not be undertaken until research was designed and implemented to provide fuller understanding of the target population's responses to new ideas and economic development programs. The institutional environment in which rural people live not only determines the quality of their initiative but also conditions their ways of thinking and doing in the most fundamental manner. What they do and what they do not do is determined by the institutional forces in their environment acting as incentives and constraints on their behavior. This appears particularly true in rural low income families where normative conformity appears to take on greater importance than in the higher socio-economic levels.

Previously, very little work has been undertaken to isolate the institutional and individual characteristics directly inhibiting or encouraging the adoption of new ideas by rural low income families. Therefore, this Phase I project, entitled "Perception of Institutional Constraint and Incentives in the Acceptance of New Ideas and Economic Opportunity Programs by the Rural Low Income Families," was designed to examine the social, cultural, psychological, economic, religious, political, and ecological factors perceived by the target population as constraints or incentives to accepting new ideas and economic opportunity programs. Determination of these factors which signficantly influence behavior was critical groundwork for the later developmental effort of building organizations designed to maximize local initiative in the alleviation of poverty-related problems.

Four objectives were formulated to guide this research into perceived constraints and incentives, as follows:

1. To identify institutional and individual constraints which negatively affect the adoption of new ideas and economic practices by the rural low income families.
2. To identify institutional and individual incentives which encourage the adoption of new ideas and economic practices by the rural low income families.
3. To find out the relationship of various demographic and social characteristics of the respondents with their perception of institutional constraints and incentives.
4. To develop profiles of psycho-socio-economic resources of the target population.

Methodology

Methodological procedures employed in this project included the design of a research instrument (questionnaire), sampling, interviewing (data collection), and data analyses. Each of these will be discussed in the following sections.

Questionnaire

A three-part questionnaire was designed for use by the field researchers in face-to-face interview situations with heads of households (see Appendix A). This research instrument contained 108 items constructed to elicit information regarding the variables selected for this study as well as to identify perceived incentives and constraints. The topics covered in each part of the questionnaire may be outlined as follows:

Part A (46 items)

Background Variables

Race
Sex
Age
Marital Status
Educational Level

Employment Status
Family Background
Occupation
Home Ownership
Car Ownership
General Health
Public Assistance

Behavioral Variables

Mobility
Media Consumption
Registration and Voting Habits
Social Participation

Part B (24 items)

Perceived Incentives and Constraints

Individual:	Personality Age Health
Institutional:	Family Social Religious Economic Educational Political Job Opportunities

Part C (38 items)

Attitudinal Variables

Aspiration Levels
Characteristics Important to Getting Ahead
Religiosity
Treatment by Authorities

Psychological Variables

Self-Esteem
Job Motivation
Authoritarianism
Social Isolation and Powerlessness (Alienation)

The questionnaire was reviewed and discussed item by item during the interviewer four-day training period, and preliminary modifications were made. It was then pretested through practice interviews in Leon and Wakulla Counties

(counties not included in the sample), and on the basis of these interviews final revisions were made in the content and format of the survey instrument.

Sampling Procedures

The following criteria were established for selecting the sample counties: (1) rurality of the county; (2) incidence of poverty in the county; and (3) racial composition of the county. These criteria were intended to maximize the percentage of households both rural and poor and to secure variation in the percentages of black households.

Six counties in northwest Florida were selected for this study: Calhoun, Holmes, Jackson, Jefferson, Liberty, and Washington (see map in Appendix B). Table 1 reflects the 22 counties in northwest Florida according to the percentages of rural families, low income rural families, and black rural families which are low income in each. It can be noted that northwest Florida is predominantly rural and that, generally, the more rural the county the higher the incidence of poverty. In addition, the proportion of blacks in these counties varies substantially.

Considerations other than the aforementioned criteria were involved in selecting the six counties for the study. For example, Wakulla County was eliminated because of its Census Bureau classification as a metropolitan county and its proximity to the state capital, Tallahassee. Lafayette, Madison, and Taylor Counties were eliminated because of a request from the University of Florida based on their re-

Table 1

Percentages of Rural, Rural Low Income, and Black Rural Low Income Families in Twenty-Two North and Northwest Florida Counties

Counties	Total Population Which is Rural	Rural Population Which is Low Income	Black Rural Population Which is Low Income
Bay	23.6%	30.6%	65.2%
*Calhoun	100.0%	51.4%	62.9%
Dixie	100.0%	42.3%	58.1%
Escambia	16.1%	26.2%	56.5%
Franklin	55.9%	58.6%	100.0%
Gadsden	58.0%	51.6%	64.8%
Gulf	56.4%	38.2%	69.1%
Hamilton	100.0%	44.9%	74.1%
*Holmes	100.0%	52.2%	87.7%
*Jackson	72.7%	50.5%	77.1%
*Jefferson	100.0%	45.9%	67.6%
Lafayette	100.0%	45.0%	62.2%
Leon	24.5%	24.6%	61.5%
*Liberty	100.0%	43.9%	68.4%
Madison	71.5%	47.8%	75.7%
Okaloosa	37.9%	27.3%	54.2%
Santa Rosa	65.5%	32.0%	61.4%
Suwannee	56.1%	47.6%	77.8%
Taylor	43.6%	33.1%	90.6%
Wakulla	100.0%	40.5%	72.9%
Walton	69.2%	41.7%	76.4%
*Washington	72.7%	55.6%	73.2%

Source: State of Florida, 1970 Census Data, Family Income.

*Counties selected for sample.

search involvement in those counties.

Sample size was expected to range between 100 and 600 respondents per county. The numbers were estimated by using land survey sectional divisions (grid areas 6 by 6 miles, i.e., 36 square miles) which demarcate county sections. These sections were stratified according to density (more than average/less than average), and two sections of each density level were selected randomly in each county.

Respondents residing in urban areas (defined by the U. S. Census as areas with populations of 2,500 or more) were excluded from consideration; however, the remainder of any section containing such urban populations was eligible for selection.

In addition, "incomplete" sections, those containing less than the full 36 square miles, were considered eligible for selection if they were at least three-fourths complete, i.e., if they contained at least 27 square miles. Areas of county which fell in partial sections less than 27 square miles in area, along irregular county borders, were not eligible for selection. The exclusion of these incomplete sections did not introduce any systematic bias in the sample since sectional divisions within counties are arbitrary.

Within each section, depending on the population, every other or every third dwelling was selected. In Calhoun, Holmes, Jefferson, Liberty, and Washington Counties, every other dwelling was selected. In Jackson County every third dwelling was selected. From these dwellings, the sample of respondents was drawn consisting of heads of households whose income was below the poverty level.[1] Poverty income levels are displayed in Table 2 according to the criteria of family size, farm or nonfarm residence, and male or female head of household.

Table 2

Poverty Income Levels According to Criteria of Family Size, Farm or Nonfarm Residence, and Sex of Head of Household

Family Size	Nonfarm		Farm	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
1	$2,610.00	$2,413.00	$2,158.00	$2,029.00
2	3,220.00	3,167.00	2,711.00	2,632.00
3	3,957.00	3,822.00	3,345.00	3,133.00
4	5,040.00	5,014.00	4,303.00	4,262.00
5	5,957.00	5,882.00	5,057.00	5,072.00
6	6,706.00	6,642.00	5,700.00	5,702.00
7 or more	8,278.00	8,079.00	7,017.00	7,066.00

Source: Criteria established by Social Security Administration, Washington, D.C.

In summary, the sampling procedures were carried out in a multi-stage design consisting of the following five steps:

First Stage

1. Purposeful selection of six counties in northwest Florida.

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[1] The definition of poverty as enunciated by the Social Security Administration was used (Table 2).

2. Division of the six counties into area segments and stratification of the area segments into two categories of population density.

Second Stage

3. Random selection of two "densely populated" and two "sparsely populated" area segments within each county.

Third Stage

4. (First Phase) Systematic selection of every other dwelling or every third dwelling within each area segment for purposes of obtaining family income level.
5. (Second Phase) Sample composed of heads of households of families selected in first phase whose incomes fall below the poverty level.

Interviewing Procedures

Four interviewers, two black and two white, were selected as the field staff primarily on the basis of residence in the six-county target area and secondarily for their education and/or relevant work experience.

Prior to the implementation of the field work, the four interviewers participated in a four-day training program (see Appendix C for training schedule, explanatory comments, and evaluation of the training). This training emphasized the National Opinion Research Center and Institute for Social Research training manuals and included orientation to the methods and techniques of survey research as well as practice with and field testing of the survey instrument.[2] In addition to the interviewer's role and appropriate techniques, the field staff were trained in reading and using maps of their assigned areas. Guest speakers were involved in the training for the purpose of sharing their knowledge and expertise gained from long experience in working with the rural poor.

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[2] Interviewers Manual (Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1969) and Manual of Procedures for Hiring and Training Interviewers (Chicago: National Opinion Research Center, University of Chicago, 1972).

The interviewers were matched with respondents by race (i.e., blacks interviewed blacks, and whites interviewed whites) to reduce refusal rates and interviewer effects. Since approximate racial composition within the selected sections of each county was known, interviewers were assigned to sections in which their race was predominant. In addition, they were instructed to refer potential respondents of the oppisite race to interviewers of that race.

Table 3 reflects the total 586 interviews according to county and race. The two black interviewers completed 250 interviews in approximately two months, and the two white interviewers completed 336 interviews in approximately four months. Since a higher proportion of household incomes in black communities fell below the poverty level, black interviews were easier to obtain. In addition, interviewers were instructed to make three "callbacks" to houses where they had found nobody home--these "callbacks" to be at different times of the day or evening and on weekends, so that the sample would not be biased in favor of types of people usually found at home. Interviewers were also allowed to omit any households in their sections which, from outside appearances, were obviously not poor.

Table 3

Number of Interviews Within Each County According to Race

County	Black	White	Total
Calhoun	5	94	99
Holmes	0	94	94
Jackson	72	12	84
Jefferson	109	2	111
Liberty	30	67	97
Washington	34	67	101
Totals	250	336	586

Data Analyses

Using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) as a guide, the survey instrument was precoded according to the prescribed procedures for computer program input, and a variety of statistical methods was selected for analyses of the data.[3]

The background, behavioral, attitudinal, and psychological variables under investigation were described and analyzed through the use of frequency distributions, percentage distributions, zero order correlations, gamma associations, regression analyses, standardized regression coefficients, and factor analysis. The .05 probability level was adopted as the level of significance for all statistical tests.

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[3] Norman H. Nie et al., Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (2nd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1975).

Format of Report

The main body of this report is organized into chapters pertaining to specific classifications of the variables under investigation. Analyses and interpretations of the findings related to these variables are presented in the following chapters:

Chapter II. Sample Description and Analyses: Background Variables

Chapter III. Sample Description and Analyses: Behavioral Variables

Chapter IV. Attitudinal Variables Related to Acceptance of New Ideas and Small-Scale Economic Enterprises

Chapter V. Psychological Variables Related to Acceptance of New Ideas and Small-Scale Economic Enterprises

Chapter VI is a presentation and discussion of the findings regarding respondents' perceived institutional and individual incentives and constraints to the acceptance of small-scale economic enterprises. This chapter also provides the results of a factor analysis of the individual and institutional trait effects.

Chapter VII is the summary chapter of this report, including conclusions and implications drawn by the researchers as a result of the study and its findings.

Tables and figures are used throughout this report to represent major findings in graphic form. Analyses and interpretations are incorporated into the chapter narratives, and the major conclusions are summarized in the final chapter.

Appropriate appendices are attached to supplement information in the report, and major references are documented in footnotes throughout the chapters.

CHAPTER II

SAMPLE DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS: BACKGROUND VARIABLES

The description of demographic, educational, occupational, family background, and home and automobile ownership variables is presented in this chapter. Unnecessary descriptions have been avoided.

Demographic Variables

Of the 586 respondents interviewed, 354 were male and 232 were female heads of households. Of these respondents, 250 were black and 336 were white, ranging in age from 18 to 94. The median age of the sample was 56.7 years, with a standard deviation of 17.7.

Table 4 displays the percentages of respondents by sex and race, indicating that slightly more males were white and slightly more females were black.

Table 4

Percentages of Respondents
by Sex and Race

Sex	Black	White
Male	57.6	62.5
Female	42.4	37.5

Figure 1 presents in percentages an age distribution of respondents according to race, showing that more blacks were represented in the two younger age categories (18-34 and 35-49) and more whites in the two older age categories (50-64 and 65-94).

Correlations among age, sex, and race indicated that whites were slightly older than blacks, more whites were male, and females were slightly older than males. The low values of r for relationships between age and race and between sex and race (see Table 5) indicate that any differences by race were not, in fact, due to differences in age or sex.

Table 5

Zero Order Correlations (Pearson's r)
Among Age, Sex, and Race

	Race	Age
Race	-	-
Age	.08	-
Sex	.09	.12

Slightly over half (54%) of the sample were married, and approximately one-fourth of the respondents were widows or widowers. Approximately 7% were in each category of unmarried, separated, and divorced.

One-fourth of the sample represented single-member households, and 28% were living with one other family member (usually a spouse). Approximately 10% each were living in

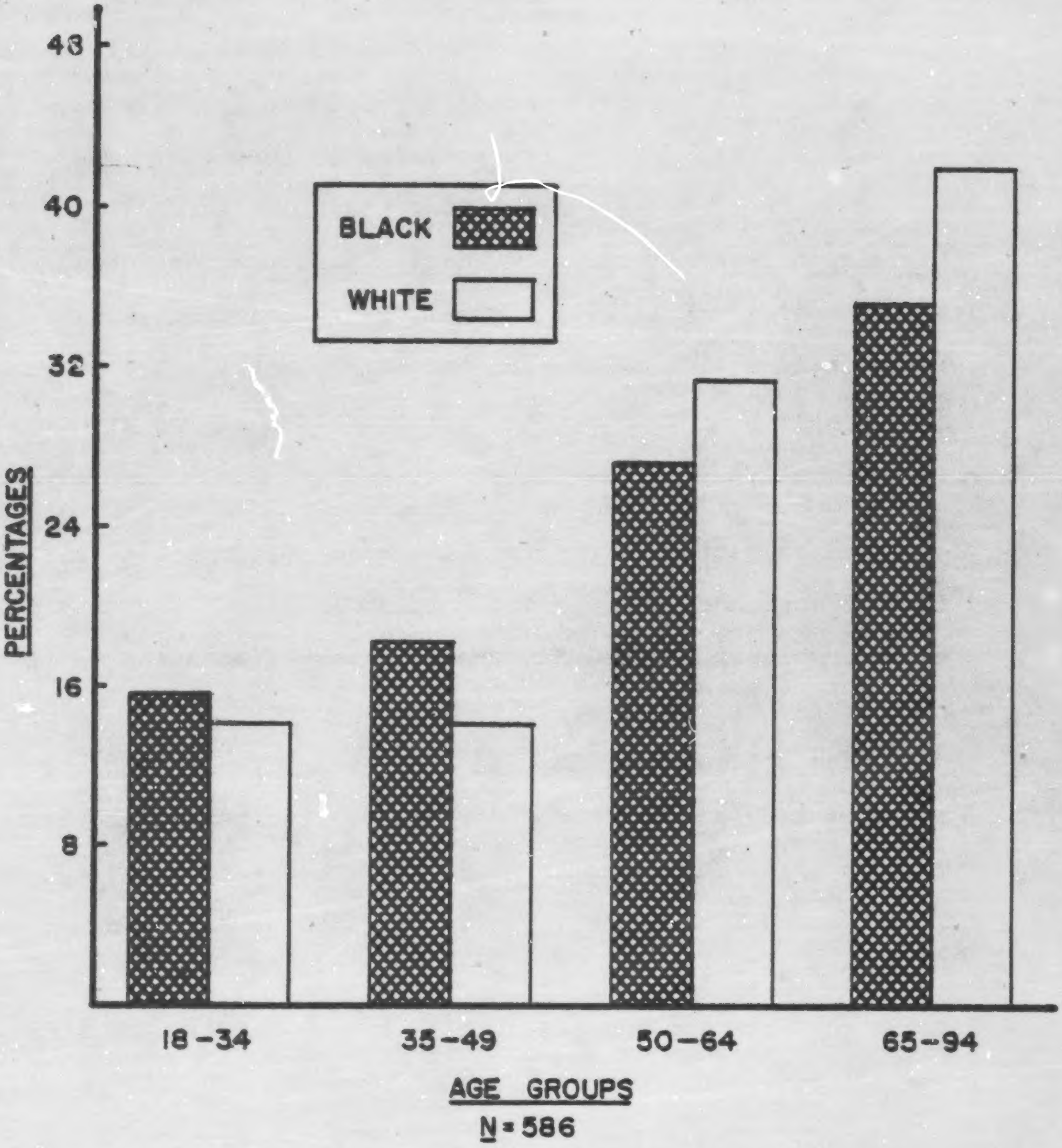


Figure 1. Percentages of black and white respondents within various age groupings.

households with three, four, or five family members. Six-member households were represented by 6%, seven-member households by 5%, and eight-member households by 4% of the respondents. The remaining small percentage (approximately 2%) were households ranging from nine to thirteen members.

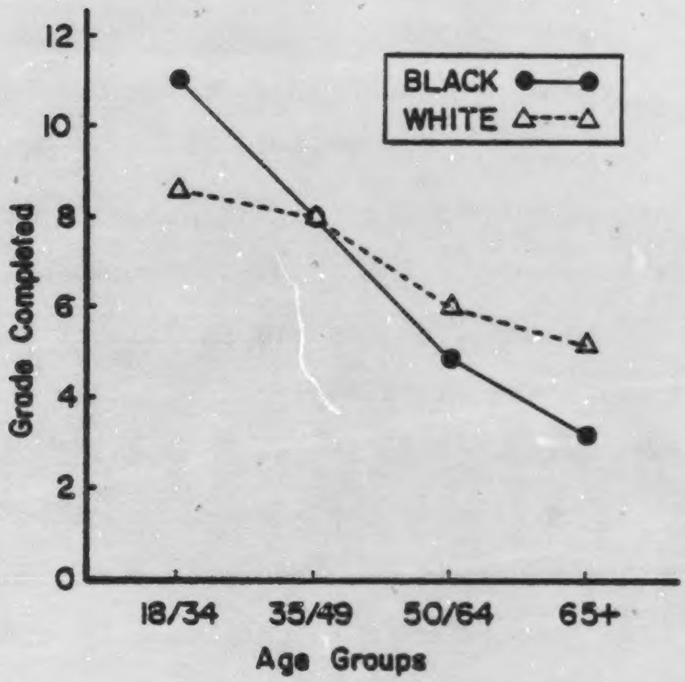
Over half of the sample (52%) had no children (under 18 years of age) living with them. Those with one child represented 12%, those with two children 9%, and those with three children 10% of the sample. The remaining 17% of the respondents had from four to eight children living with them.

Educational Levels

The educational mean for last grade of school completed for the entire sample was 6.2. This mean for blacks was 6.0, and for whites it was 6.3. These summary statistics appear to mask racial differences.

Figure 2 depicts the mean educational levels for blacks and whites by age. The downward slopes indicate that the highest grade completed for both races decreases with age. The steeper slope depicting black educational level by age indicates a greater difference in highest grade completed between the youngest and oldest blacks than between the same age groupings of their white counterparts.

In the youngest age group (18-34), the black educational mean was 10.9, and the white educational mean was 8.7. Both racial groups between the ages of 35 and 49 averaged an eighth grade education. Blacks in the age group 40 to 64 averaged a fifth grade education, while whites in the same



	Age Groups				
	18-34	35-49	50-64	65 +	Total
Black					
Mean	10.9	8.0	4.9	3.3	6.0
SD	2.2	3.3	3.2	3.0	4.0
N	40	55	67	88	250
White					
Mean	8.7	8.1	5.8	5.3	6.3
SD	3.1	3.7	3.7	3.3	3.7
N	48	44	99	145	336
Total					
Mean					6.2
SD					3.9
N					586

Figure 2. Mean educational levels by race and age.

age group typically completed the sixth grade. In the oldest age group (65 and older), the black educational mean was 3.3, and the white educational mean was 5.3.

When compared to whites, larger proportions of blacks either graduated from high school or had no schooling at all. Among blacks, 12.8% completed grade 12, while among whites, 9.8% completed grade 12. Among blacks, 15.6% did not attend school at all, and among whites 11.6% received no schooling.

Of the 43 respondents who did not attend school, 66% were age 65 and older, while only one respondent under age 35 did not attend school. These figures lead to the conclusion that population replacement in northwest Florida is significantly raising the educational level of the rural poor.

Table 6 compares the median educational levels of the total population with the levels of the rural, low income population within the six target counties (1970 Census of Population). In addition, the table displays data for both the ~~total~~ population and the black population. For purposes of this comparison, respondents age 31 and older in the sample were determined to be equivalent to the age grouping of 25 and over used by the 1970 census in presenting educational levels.

These data reveal that, totally, residents of counties typically finish the ninth grade and that all blacks living in these counties typically finish the sixth grade. Within the study sample, educational levels were several grades lower. In addition, the 1970 census data showed that while

Table 6

Median Grade Completed by Total and Black Populations by Sex Within Target Counties (According to Total County Population - 25 years and older* and Rural Low Income Sample - 31 years and older[1])

County	Total Population Male	Total Population Female	Black Population Male	Black Population Female
Calhoun	8.6 (5.8)	9.4 (6.0)	5.7 (4.0)	8.3 (6.0)
Holmes	8.8 (5.0)	9.0 (6.3)	---	---
Jackson	9.3 (4.1)	10.0 (6.3)	6.1 (4.1)	7.7 (5.7)
Jefferson	8.0 (3.4)	9.2 (6.7)	4.9 (3.3)	6.5 (6.7)
Liberty	7.7 (5.6)	9.5 (6.9)	4.4 (4.0)	6.8 (7.0)
Washington	10.5 (5.5)	10.1 (7.5)	6.6 (4.5)	7.8 (5.5)

*1970 Census of Population, pp. 481-486.

[1] Numbers in parentheses

rural, low income people had low educational levels, the population as a whole in these counties typically did not attend high school.

Work Status and Occupations

Figure 3 examines work status of the 353 respondents under age 65. This working age population included 60.2% of the sample; 39.8% were 65 years of age and older and considered to be of retirement age.

Figure 3 shows that employment was nearly twice as high as unemployment. In the population under 65, 43% were employed and 24% unemployed. While unemployment was nearly identical for both races (23% for blacks and 26% for

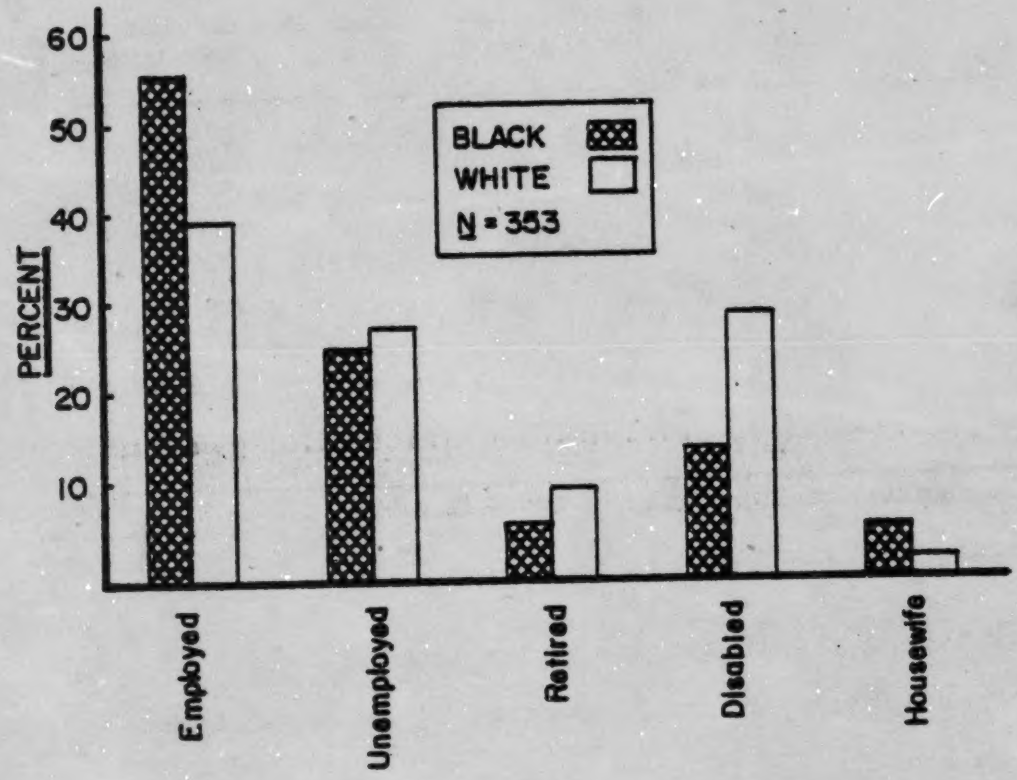


Figure 3. Percentages of black and white respondents (under 65) within various classifications of work status.

whites), employment was substantially higher among blacks. Fifty-six percent of the black low income families had a working head of household as compared to 38% of the white families.

Most of the remaining nonworking whites were respondents who classified themselves as disabled. The proportion of whites identifying themselves as disabled was twice that of blacks. One-half (53%) of the disabled respondents were receiving public assistance benefits, and this proportion did not vary by race.

Table 7 displays occupational status of the employed and unemployed black and white respondents depicted in Figure 3. Included in Table 7 are 237 respondents who were working or who, it was assumed, were unable to find jobs. Housewives, those retired, and those disabled were excluded.

Table 7

Percentages[a] of Black and White Respondents (Under 65) by Employment Status and Occupation

Employment Status	Farmer	Unskilled Labor	Skilled Labor	Other[b]	Total
Employed					
Black	6% (9)	36% (55)	13% (20)	3% (4)	56% (88)
White	5% (8)	18% (28)	11% (17)	7% (11)	42% (64)
Unemployed					
Black	1% (1)	25% (21)	17% (14)	1% (1)	44% (37)
White	0	21% (18)	21% (18)	14% (12)	56% (48)

[a] *N*'s are in parentheses.

[b] Includes clerical and paraprofessional.

Eleven percent of the employed work force were farmers evenly distributed by race. Unemployment for farmers was nearly zero. Slightly over half (55%) of the employed work force were unskilled laborers. This category included farm laborers, nonfarm laborers, and private household workers. Proportionately, twice as many blacks as whites in this category were employed. Nearly half (46%) the unemployed were unskilled laborers, with the proportion of blacks slightly higher than whites.

Almost one-fourth (24%) of those having jobs were skilled laborers, and these workers varied little by race. This category comprised over one-third (38%) of the unemployed, including a slightly higher proportion of whites than blacks.

Ten percent of the employed and fifteen percent of the unemployed were classified as "other." Generally, this category, which included workers who did not fit into other categories, e.g., nurses' aides (paraprofessional) and office workers (clerical), was predominantly white for both employed and unemployed.

Family Background:
Farming/Nonfarming

When asked, "Is your family's work related to farming or nonfarming?", 8.9% of the respondents answered "retired farming" and 2.6% answered "retired both." Additionally, 2.9% reported that they were currently operating their own farms, .5% were tenant farmers, and 3.1% were engaged in both farming and other work.

Nearly 24% of the sample had been directly involved in agriculture, and 49% of these were retired. Of the remaining actively engaged in farmwork approximately one-half (44.1%) owned or rented less than 20 acres, and about one-half (55.9%) owned or rented 20 acres or more.

Approximately three-fourths of the farmers raised vegetables, and one-fourth grew grains. Nearly three-fourths (74%) of the farmers had been engaged in farming for over 20 years.

One-third of the farmers spent less than half the year (26 weeks) working, and nearly one-third worked full-time (52 weeks), with the remainder falling somewhere in between. About one-third (35%) of the farmers worked seven hours a day or less, and two-thirds (58%) worked from eight to ten hours per day.

Roughly one-third of the farmers indicated that most or almost all of their income came from farming, and one-third indicated that a very small part of their income came from farming.

Home and Automobile Ownership

Nearly three-fourths (72%) of the respondents owned their homes. Older respondents were more likely to own their homes than younger respondents (gamma=.33). One-half of those under age 35 (52%) owned homes, and four-fifths of those 65 and older (81%) owned homes. Differences in ownership by sex and by race were negligible.

Sixty-five percent of those sampled reported that their homes needed major repairs. Of these whose homes needed major repairs, the proportion was slightly greater among nonhomeowners. Nonhomeowners included both renters (22%) and those who received free accommodations (6%), the latter including mostly laborers. Sixty-three percent of the owners' and 69% of the nonowners' homes needed major repairs (gamma=.14).

Slightly more females than males claimed that their homes needed major repairs (gamma=.13), and slightly more respondents with a lower educational level than those with a higher educational level had homes needing major repairs (gamma=.12). Racial differences in need for major repairs were virtually zero.

Nearly half (47%) of those sampled owned both a house and an automobile. Fifteen percent owned neither. Of those who owned one or the other, twice as many owned only a house (25%) as owned only an automobile (13%).

CHAPTER III

SAMPLE DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS: BEHAVIORAL VARIABLES

The findings pertaining to the variables of media consumption, registration and voting behavior, social participation and mobility are presented in this chapter.

Media Consumption

Newspapers/Magazines

When asked if they read newspapers and/or magazines, the majority of respondents reported that they read neither. Approximately 55% did not read newspapers, and 68% did not read magazines. Those who did read newspapers were asked about the frequency of contact with that medium. About one-third of these readers (about 14% of all the respondents) reported that they read a newspaper almost every day, 10% read a newspaper three or four times a week, and 60% read one less than three times a week.

Since race and age appeared to have little effect on newspaper usage, this may be best explained by educational level. Table 8 reveals that six times as many respondents with higher educational levels (grades 7 to 16) read a newspaper as did respondents with lower educational levels (grades 0 to 6). On the other hand, twice as many respondents in the lower educational group as in the higher educational group never read a paper.

Table 8

Mass Media Usage for News and Educational Programs
(According to Educational Levels of Respondents)

Educational Level	N	Newspaper Usage Frequently	3-4 times a week	Less than 3 times a week	Never	Total
Grades						
0-6	318	4%	2%	22%	71%	99%[a]
7-16	265	24%	7%	33%	36%	100%

Educational Level	N	Television Usage Regularly	Often	Seldom	Never	Total
Grades						
0-6	317	64%	12%	13%	11%	100%
7-16	265	72%	9%	12%	6%	99%[a]

Educational Level	N	Radio Usage Regularly	Often	Seldom	Never	Total
Grades						
0-6	318	38%	10%	17%	35%	100%
7-16	263	38%	13%	24%	25%	100%

[a] Does not equal 100 due to rounding.

Television and Radio

Over 92% of those sampled owned a television set, and approximately 80% owned a radio. Over three-fourths (78%) of the sample reported that they regularly or often watched news and/or educational television programs, and 16% seldom or never engaged in this activity. According to the data presented in Table 8, a higher educational level was mildly related to more frequently watching television news and/or educational programs.

Radio appeared to fall between newspapers and television as a news medium used by the rural poor. Almost half the respondents listened regularly or often to radio news and/or educational programs, and about one-third seldom or never did so. It appears that educational level and frequency of listening to radio news were not associated.

Registration and Voting Habits

Four-fifths (79%) of the respondents said that they were registered to vote, and of these registered voters, approximately 65% each reported voting in the last national, state, and local elections. The national, or presidential, vote may be considered to represent voting in general since few respondents reported voting at that level but not at the state or local level.

Whether or not a low income resident of this target area in rural northwest Florida was registered to vote was found to be related to age--older residents were more likely than younger residents to be registered (gamma=.32).

The relationships between sex or race and registration were virtually zero. In addition, when age was controlled, registration was greater among respondents who attended school beyond the sixth grade than among respondents who attended grades 0 through 6. This relationship was significant, however, only among the 45-64 age group (gamma=.54). Relationships were identical between voting and age, sex, race, and education, although these relationships were muted on the voting variable.

It was also found that people who were more authoritarian and who felt powerless tended to register more often. The relationship between authoritarianism and registration (gamma=.27), however, may be spurious due to the common relationship with age, and the relationship between powerlessness and registration appeared mild (gamma=.22).

Social Participation

Discovering who among the rural poor participated in group activities was important since these may be the individuals who are also predisposed to participate in poverty programs as group activities.

Three indicators of social participation were included in the study--church attendance, visiting with friends, and club attendance. A social participation variable was created by recoding each of these three indicators to range from "frequent" to "never" and then summing the three.

Stepwise regression (see Table 9) of the social participation variable with race, education, car ownership, sex,

Table 9

Stepwise Regression of Social Participation Variable With Demographic and Other Related Variables

Step	Variable Entered[a]	Significance	$\underline{r}^2$	β
1	Race	0	.234	.521
2	Education	.000	.254	.133
3	Car Ownership	.002	.266	.169
4	Sex	.003	.277	.112
5	Age	.061	.281	.086
6	Health	.534	.282	.025

[a] An additional variable, marital status, was not entered.
N=583

age, health, and marital status revealed that race best explained social participation, accounting for 23% of the variance. Other significant variables (.05 level) were education, car ownership, and sex. Blacks who were better educated, owned a car, and who were female were more likely to participate socially. Age, health, and marital status were not significant (.05 level).

Since race, education, and age were not linearly related (see Figure 2), interaction terms for race and education and for race and age were added to the equation, but neither had any effect.

Tables 10, 11, and 12 display racial breakdowns for the three indicators of social participation. Respondents were asked whether they belonged to any religious, community, neighborhood, or "other" kind of organization or group, and 12% reported that they belonged to church groups, 5% to community groups, 13% to neighborhood groups, and 2% to "other" groups.

Table 10 shows that 23% of the respondents reported attending club meetings and that 77% reported no such attendance. Club membership was found in 41% of the blacks and in 9% of the whites.

Table 10

Club Meeting Attendance Percentages[a] by Race

Attendance	Black	White	Total
Never	25% (147)	52% (306)	77% (453)
Regularly, often or seldom	18% (103)	5% (30)	23% (133)
Total	43% (250)	57% (336)	100% (586)

[a] N's are in parentheses.
Gamma = -.75

Table 11 indicates that race was strongly associated with church attendance. Of the black respondents, 75% reported attending church regularly or often, and of the white respondents, 37% reported a similar attendance pattern.

Table 11

Church Attendance Percentages[a] by Race

Attendance	Black	White	Total
Regularly or often	32% (187)	21% (124)	53% (311)
Seldom or never	11% (62)	36% (211)	47% (273)
Total	42% (249)	57% (335)	100% (584)

[a] N's are in parentheses.
Gamma = .67

It was also found that visiting friends and relatives was strongly associated with race, although the association was even stronger for church and club attendance. Table 12 shows that 68% of the blacks reported visiting friends or relatives two or more times a month. Approximately 44% of the white respondents reported this visiting pattern.

Table 12

Percentages[a] Reported According to Race on Frequency of Visiting with Relatives or Friends in Nearby Communities

Frequency of Visiting	Black	White	Total
Twice or more a month	29% (170)	25% (147)	54% (317)
Once or less a month	14% (80)	32% (188)	46% (268)
Total	43% (250)	57% (335)	100% (585)

[a] N's are in parentheses. Gamma = .46

Mobility

Examination of individual mobility differences was undertaken to suggest incentives and constraints among the rural poor to participation in poverty programs which would necessitate travel. In addition, it was suspected that greater mobility among low income persons might be related to more exposure to middle class referents, thereby raising their aspiration levels.[1]

Three variables were established as measures of respondents' mobility independent of social participation--length of residence in the community, frequency of travel to the nearest city or county seat, and distance to the place where most shopping was done.

Stepwise regression of mobility (see Table 13) with the same independent variables hypothesized to explain social participation (i.e., race, education, car ownership, sex, age, health, and marital status) revealed that mobility of the sample was nearly independent of social participation. The variable which best explained social participation (i.e., race) had no effect on mobility, and the variable which best explained mobility (i.e., age) had no effect on social participation.

Table 13 shows that 22% of the variance in mobility was explained by the independent variables. Five variables--age, car ownership, health, marital status, and education--

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[1] Lawrence E. Sneider, "Factors affecting the mobility-orientation of the poor," Pacific Sociological Review, 1974, 17(1), 60-82.

Table 13

Stepwise Regression of Mobility Variable with Demographic and Other Variables

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Age	.000	.134	.214
2	Car Ownership	0	.175	.131
3	Health	.001	.191	.125
4	Marital Status	.003	.203	.168
5	Education	.014	.211	.107
6	Sex	.600	.212	.028
7	Race	.805	.212	.010

N = 571

were significant at the .05 level. Age explained most of the variance, followed by car ownership and health. Younger members of this rural low income population were more likely to travel or move, and individuals owning cars were more mobile, although car ownership was substantially less important than age. Being in good health, married, and having more education were significant (.05 level) predictors of higher mobility but together explained merely an additional 4% of the variance in mobility.

Tables 14, 15, and 16 display crosstabulations of the three variables comprising mobility with age for the purpose of determining whether or not age affected the three dimensions of mobility differently.

Table 14 shows percentages of the total sample within each age group who had lived in their communities more than 20 years and 20 years or less. These data reveal that there was a strong relationship between age and the number of years of residence in the community. Using the total number of respondents in each age group, it can be seen that slightly over one-half (52%) of the respondents under age 45, almost three-fourths (72%) of those ages 45 to 64, and over four-fifths (82%) of those age 65 and over had lived in their communities more than 20 years.

Table 14

Percentages[a] Reporting Years Lived in Community According to Age Groups[b]

Years	18-44	45-64	65+	Total
20 years or less	12% (68)	10% (56)	8% (43)	29% (167)
More than 20 years	13% (74)	25% (141)	33% (190)	71% (405)
Total	25% (142)	34% (197)	41% (233)	100% (572)

[a] N's are in parentheses. Gamma = .42

[b] Respondents aged 18 to 20 are excluded.

Table 15 reveals that younger people were slightly more inclined to shop at greater distances from home than were older people. This dimension of mobility, however, was the least related to age of the three measures. Nearly two-thirds (65%) of the respondents under age 45 shopped more than 5 miles from home, while slightly more than one-half ages 45 to 64 (53%) and those 65 and older (56%) shopped more than 5 miles from home.

Table 15

Percentages[a] Reporting Distance to Place of Shopping According to Age Groups

Distance	18-44	45-64	65+	Total
5 miles or less	9% (53)	16% (93)	18% (103)	43% (249)
More than 5 miles	17% (100)	18% (106)	22% (130)	57% (336)
Total	26% (153)	34% (199)	40% (233)	100% (585)

[a] N's are in parentheses.
Gamma = -.11

A strong relationship existed between frequency of travel to the closest city or county seat and age (see Table 16). Nearly three-fourths (73%) of the respondents under age 45 traveled to town at least once a week, while two-thirds (68%) of the respondents ages 45 to 64 and less than half (41%) of the respondents age 65 and older traveled to town this frequently.

Table 16

Percentages[a] Reporting Frequency of Travel to Nearest City or County Seat According to Age Groups

Number of Trips	18-44	45-64	65+	Total
4 or more a month	19% (113)	23% (135)	16% (95)	58% (343)
Less than 4 a month	7% (41)	11% (64)	24% (138)	42% (243)
Total	26% (154)	34% (199)	40% (233)	100% (586)

[a] N's are in parentheses.
Gamma = .46

Summary Statement

The behavior of the respondents with respect to media consumption, registration and voting, social participation, and mobility was considered to be indicative of potential behavior in accepting new ideas and economic programs.

CHAPTER IV

ATTITUDINAL VARIABLES RELATED TO ACCEPTANCE OF NEW IDEAS AND SMALL-SCALE ECONOMIC ENTERPRISES

Included in this chapter are findings in regard to aspiration levels of respondents, characteristics perceived as important to getting ahead, and perceptions of treatment by authorities, followed by a summary statement relating these findings to acceptance of new ideas.

Aspiration Levels

Respondents were asked four questions about their aspiration levels. A percentage distribution of the responses is shown in Table 17, demonstrating that aspiration levels among these rural poor were high. Respondents age 65 and older were excluded in order to look more closely at the aspiration levels of the working age population--those who would more likely be involved in community development projects.

The four aspiration measures met the Guttman criteria for scalability with a .93 coefficient of reproducibility (minimum acceptable is .90) and a .65 coefficient of scalability (minimum acceptable is .60). This meant that the four items could be ordered so that if a respondent's answer fell above a given point on one item, his/her answer would fall above that point on any preceding item and might or might not fall above that point on any item which followed.

For example, respondents were least likely to have a very high aspiration level on the question regarding education (#4), but if a respondent did hold a very high aspiration level on that question, he or she was almost certain to have a very high aspiration level on the question about job training (#3). Thus, the next two items in ascending order were about getting a good job (#2) and earning more money (#1).

Table 17

Percentages of Responses by Strength of Importance on Four Aspiration Level Items

	Not important at all						Very important
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Where on the line would you put earning more money?	10%	5%	1%	3%	3%	4%	77%
2. Where would you put getting a good job?	21%	2%	2%	4%	5%	3%	63%
3. Where would you put getting job training?	27%	2%	3%	5%	4%	5%	54%
4. Where would you put getting more education?	27%	3%	2%	8%	5%	5%	49%

N = 586

Since the four aspiration level questions were shown to be unidimensional, an index of aspiration was created by summing the four items. Zero order correlations between the index of aspiration and demographic variables are shown in Table 18.

Table 18

Zero Order Correlations Between Aspiration
Index and Demographic and Background Variables

	Aspiration	Race	Age
Race	.123	-	-
Age	-.342	.059	-
Education	.183	.050	.459

Table 19 displays regression of the aspiration index with the three demographic variables. Race and age were found to be significant (.05 level), indicating that blacks and younger people had higher levels of aspiration. Age had a greater impact than race. Since little variance in aspiration level was explained by these variables, it may be concluded that aspiration levels were high across race, levels of education, and age.

The aspiration index created had a range of 28 values (i.e., seven values on each of the four items) ordered from lowest to highest (i.e., from the lowest value on the lowest ordered item to the highest value on the highest ordered item). Since nearly one-half of the responses fell in the highest computed value on each item, this apsiration level variable was not used in other phases of the analyses. However, it was demonstrated that the aspiration level of this rural low income population under age 65 was very high.

Table 19

Regression of Aspiration Index With
Demographic and Background Variables

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Race	.042	.015	.103
2	Education	.590	.047	.030
3	Age	0	.128	-.322

Characteristics Important to Getting Ahead

Respondents were asked what they felt were the most important and second most important characteristics to getting ahead. For data analysis, the "most important characteristic" was weighted "2" and the "second most important characteristic" weighted "1."

Forty percent of the respondents (see Table 20) felt God was most important to getting ahead. Ability, hard work, better opportunities, and education were all rated similarly, from 10% to 12% of the respondents indicating these characteristics as most important. The characteristics of luck and who you know were perceived as least important to getting ahead.

Table 20

Combined Weighted Responses in Percentages to "Most Important Characteristic to Getting Ahead"

Characteristics	Percentages
1. Ability	10%
2. Luck	4%
3. Who you know	7%
4. Hard work	11%
5. Better opportunity	11%
6. God	40%
7. Education	12%
8. No response	5%

_N_ = 586

Table 21 shows racial differences in identification of the "most important characteristic to getting ahead. Whites rated _ability_, _luck_, _who you know_, _hard work_, and _better opportunities_ as substantially more important than did blacks. Blacks ranked _God_ and _education_ as slightly more important than did whites. The fact that _God_ was rated so important by the black population explains the discrepancy in number of items rated more important by whites and the degree of difference between races in rating these items.

Table 21

Combined Weighted Responses in Percentages[a] to "Most Important Characteristic to Getting Ahead" According to Race

	Ability	Luck	Who you know	Hard work	Better opportunities	God	Education
Black	1.9% (11)	.9% (5)	1.1% (6)	1.8% (10)	3.2% (18)	30.5% (173)	4.4% (25)
White	5.8% (33)	1.8% (10)	5.3% (30)	7.0% (40)	6.2% (35)	26.4% (150)	3.9% (22)
Total	7.7% (44)	2.6% (15)	6.3% (36)	8.8% (50)	9.3% (53)	56.9% (323)	8.3% (47)

[a] N's are in parentheses.

N = 568

Table 22 displays educational differences in rating the "most important characteristic to getting ahead." Respondents who attended school beyond the sixth grade rated ability, who you know, and better opportunities more highly than those with less education. Respondents with only grade school educations or with no schooling rated luck, God, hard work, and education more highly.

Age differences (see Table 23) in these ratings were similar to educational differences. Older respondents' ratings corresponded to the ratings of persons with lower educational levels. The only notable difference was that younger people did not emphasize who you know or ability as did the better educated group.

Treatment by Authorities

Two questions asked respondents whether they would be treated better, the same as, or worse than other people by police and government office workers. Approximately three-fourths responded "the same" to each question, 70% reporting that they would be treated the same by police and 77% reporting that they would be treated the same by government office workers.

These two questions were recoded so that "don't know" and "other" implied a neutral response and "depends" implied worse treatment. Crosstabulations by race, education, and age revealed that blacks and older people were more likely to feel they would be treated worse by police (gammas=.26 and .28). These variables were mildly associated. The re-

Table 22

Combined Weighted Responses in Percentages[a] to "Most Important Characteristic to Getting Ahead" According to Educational Level

Education in grades completed	Ability	Luck	Who you know	Hard work	Better opportunities	God	Education
0-6	1.2% (7)	1.6% (9)	2.1% (12)	4.6% (26)	3.5% (20)	36.6% (208)	5.1% (29)
7 or more	6.5% (37)	1.1% (6)	4.2% (24)	4.2% (24)	5.8% (33)	20.2% (115)	3.2% (18)

[a] N's are in parentheses. N = 568

Table 23

Combined Weighted Responses in Percentages[a] to "Most Important Characteristic to Getting Ahead" According to Age Groups

Age	Ability	Luck	Who you know	Hard work	Better opportunities	God	Education
18-49	4.4% (25)	.4% (2)	2.8% (16)	3.5% (20)	6.2% (35)	12.9% (73)	2.1% (12)
50 and older	3.3% (19)	2.3% (13)	3.5% (20)	5.3% (30)	3.2% (18)	44.0% (250)	6.2% (35)

[a] N's are in parentheses. N = 568

lationship between education and treatment by police was not found to be statistically significant.

There was no relationship found between race and perceived treatment by government office workers. Persons with higher educational levels expected worse treatment by government office workers (gamma=.34), as did younger persons (gamma= -.35).

Summary Statement

Attitudes of these rural low income people about future goals (aspirations), resources necessary to improve present situations (characteristics important to getting ahead), and support from others (treatment by authorities) appear to create a generally positive atmosphere for the introduction of new ideas. This may be particularly important when related to the establishment of small-scale economic enterprises which would be operated by the people themselves.

CHAPTER V

PSYCHOLOGICAL VARIABLES RELATED TO ACCEPTANCE OF NEW IDEAS AND SMALL-SCALE ECONOMIC ENTERPRISES

This chapter includes findings from questions asked for the purpose of measuring self-esteem, job motivation, authoritarianism, and social isolation and powerlessness (alienation). Since it was hypothesized that these psychological variables would affect willingness or reluctance to start a small business, a summary statement about this influence is made at the end of the chapter.

Measures used for all of these psychological variables except job motivation were standardized tests, for which reliability and validity had been established.[1]

All psychological indices were regressed with the following demographic and other background variables:

1. Age
2. Education
3. Race (dummy variable)
4. Sex (dummy variable)

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[1] The source used for the standardized measures was John P. Robinson and Phillip R. Shaver (Eds.), Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes (Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research, 1973).

5. Marital status (dummy variable)
6. Interactive effects of race and age
7. Interactive effects of race and education
8. Health
9. Religiosity
10. Public assistance recipients (dummy variable)
11. Employment/unemployment (dummy variable)
12. Home ownership (dummy variable)

Pairwise deletion of missing values was used in the stepwise regression equations.

Self-Esteem

Seven questions were included in the index of self-esteem created by summing the items.[2] These items were recoded so that their direction was consistently from low self-esteem to high self-esteem. The items were of the Likert type, and when summed, the range of responses included 14 ordinal points.

Table 24 displays a percentage distribution of responses to the seven items and indicates, generally, a high level of self-esteem. A high proportion felt that they had a number of good qualities, that they had much to be proud of, and that they were, on the whole, satisfied with themselves. Approximately three-fourths (72%) were not inclined to view themselves as failures, and almost two-thirds (63%) rated themselves able to do things as well as most other people. The respondents appeared to have comparatively lower self-esteem as measured by the two items regarding feelings at times of being "no good at all" and "useless."

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[2] Ibid., 98-101. This is M. Rosenberg's self-esteem scale, from Society and the Adolescent Self-Image (Princeton, N. J.: Princeton University Press, 1965).

Table 24

Percentage Distribution of Responses to Seven Self-Esteem Items

	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	No Response
1. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	92%	4%	3%	1%
2. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.	21%	6%	72%	1%
3. I am able to do things as well as most other people.	63%	4%	32%	1%
4. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	17%	3%	80%	1%
5. At times I think that I am no good at all.	36%	4%	57%	4%
6. I certainly feel useless at times.	53%	3%	41%	2%
7. On the whole I am satisfied with myself.	84%	4%	11%	1%

N =586

A stepwise regression of self-esteem with demographic and other background variables is displayed in Table 25. Six variables were found to be statistically significant (.05 level), explaining 22% of the variance. Health was the first variable entered in the stepwise regression program, and this variable accounted for over half the variance explained in the dependent variable. The standardized regression coefficient showed that a change in health (by one standard deviation) would have about the same effect as a change in the race/education interaction. The race/age interaction and employment status had a mild impact on self-esteem, and education and religiosity had virtually no impact.

Table 25

Stepwise Regression of Self-Esteem Index With Demographic and Other Background Variables

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Health	0	.12	.25
2	Education	.000	.17	.05
3	Race/age interaction	.018	.18	.18
4	Employment status	.015	.20	.16
5	Race/education interaction	.037	.21	.23
6	Religiosity	.050	.22	.11

N = 586

Having better health, more education, employment, and being less religious were associated with higher self-esteem. Interactive effects of race and age on self-esteem were mild, indicating that being old and white was associated with slightly higher self-esteem than being old and black. Similarly, having a higher level of education and being black was associated with higher levels of self-esteem than having a higher educational level and being white.

In a second regression equation, several psychological variables were included as hypothesized predictors of self-esteem: authoritarianism, social isolation, and powerlessness. Results were nearly the same as in the first regression except that social isolation replaced the interactive effects of race and age. As was noted in Chapter III, blacks were found to be substantially more socially participative--which helps explain the interchangeability of race and social isolation here.

Job Motivation

Five questions were used to measure job motivation. Respondents age 65 and older were excluded when this variable was regressed with the demographic and other background variables, but all respondents were included in Table 26 which shows agreement/disagreement responses with job motivation items for this rural low income population.

Over four-fifths (83%) of the respondents expressed that they would rather earn less money and work than receive welfare and not work. In addition, they (82%) indicated that, if necessary, they would work inconvenient hours to have a job. Two-thirds each would enter a job training program (68%) and did not feel a person should quit an unenjoyable job (63%). Less than half (47%) would take a job that they considered beneath them.

Table 26

Percentage Distribution of Responses to Five Job Motivation Items

	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	No Response
1. I would enter a job training program if I knew there would be a job for me when I finished it.	68%	8%	21%	3%
2. I would never take a job that was beneath me even if my family depended on it.	33%	13%	47%	7%
3. I would rather earn a little less money and work than receive welfare and not work.	83%	5%	11%	2%
4. If I had to work inconvenient hours to have a job, I would do it.	82%	4%	10%	3%
5. If a person doesn't enjoy his work he should quit even if he doesn't have another job to go to.	31%	5%	63%	1%

N = 586

Table 27 displays the stepwise regression of job motivation with background variables. Little variance in job motivation was explained by these variables. This indicates that, generally speaking, both high and low job motivation cut across the demographic and other background variables. The other psychological variables were hypothesized to predict job motivation, as well as the independent variables mentioned above.

Table 27

Stepwise Regression of Job Motivation Index With Demographic, Psychological, and Other Background Variables

Step	Variable entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Race/age interaction	.000	.05	.27
2	Health	.002	.08	.10
3	Sex	.003	.11	.16
4	Powerlessness	.030	.12	.10
5	Physical disability	.033	.14	.14

$N = 325$

The interactive effects of race and age had the greatest impact on job motivation, albeit mild. As age increased, blacks had less job motivation than whites. The groups with a tendency toward greater job motivation were as follows:

males; people who were not disabled; people in better health; and people who felt more powerful.

Authoritarianism

Several measures of the authoritarian personality were summed to form an authoritarian index.[3] For instance, respondents scoring high in authoritarianism would tend to be more rigid and dogmatic in their ideology. In addition, two variables comprising the authoritarian personality syndrome are conventionalism and cynicism. Thus, a more authoritarian personality was hypothesized to inhibit change (e.g., accepting small business) if this change conflicted with the respondent's notion of conventionality or activated his/her tendency toward cynicism.

Table 28 lists items included in the authoritarianism index and the proportions of agreement/disagreement response by the sample. These rural low income respondents all but unanimously (98%) agreed that learning to obey and respect authority were the most important things for children to learn. Over four-fifths (84%) felt that laws should be strictly enforced no matter what the result. Sixty percent agreed they would not go against an age-old tradition, with the remainder divided among "undecided," "disagree," or "no answer" responses.

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[3] Ibid., 224-232. Questions #1 and #3 are originally found in T. W. Adorno, E. Frenkel-Brunswik, D. J. Levinson, and R. N. Sanford, The Authoritarian Personality (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950).

Table 28

Percentage Distribution of Responses to Three Authoritarianism Items

	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	No Response
1. The most important virtues children should learn are to obey and respect authority.	98%	1%	1%	[a]
2. I think I would not go against an age old tradition.	60%	15%	19%	6%
3. All laws should be strictly enforced no matter what the result.	84%	8%	8%	1%

N = 586

[a] Less than .5 percent.

The two explanatory variables significant at the .05 level (see Table 29) were education and age. Both appeared to have a notable impact on authoritarianism. Since authoritarianism is related to flexibility and change, it may be expected that those who are better educated and those who are younger would be more receptive to accepting new ideas and economic opportunity programs. Multivariate analysis showed that despite the high correlation between age and education ($\underline{r} = .49$), each had a separate notable effect when the other was held constant.

Table 29

Stepwise Regression of Authoritarianism Index With Education and Age Variables

Step	Variable entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Education	0	.13	.33
2	Age	.001	.17	.30

N = 586

Social Isolation and Powerlessness (Alienation)

Social isolation and powerlessness are two dimensions of the broader concept of alienation.[4] Two question items representing each dimension were included to measure these aspects of alienation.

Table 30 displays proportions of respondent agreement/disagreement with these items.[5] Generally speaking, respondents sometimes felt all alone in the world (65%), but basically viewed the world as a friendly place (75%). They overwhelmingly agreed that there would always be war and fighting (86%) and were divided in opinion about whether or not the future looked bright (42% agreed and 35% disagreed).

Tables 31 and 32 display stepwise regressions of social isolation and powerlessness with the independent variables.

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[4] Ibid., Chapter 4. Also found in Dwight Dean, "Alienation: Its Meaning and Measurement," American Sociological Review, 1961, 26(5), 753-758.

[5] Ibid., 191-194. Questions are from Dwight Dean's Alienation scale.

Table 30

Percentage Distribution of Responses to Four Alienation Items

	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	No Response
Social Isolation				
1. Sometimes I feel all alone in the world.	65%	2%	31%	1%
2. The world we live in is basically a friendly place.	75%	8%	15%	2%
Powerlessness				
1. The future looks very bright.	42%	21%	35%	2%
2. Human nature, being what it is, there will always be war and fighting.	86%	7%	6%	2%

N =586

In Table 31, two variables were significant at the .05 level, but the variance explained was virtually zero. Married respondents scored lower on social isolation than those of other marital status. In addition, isolation increased at a greater rate among whites as they aged than among blacks. The standardized regression coefficient indicated that joint effects of race and age on social isolation were greater than the impact of marital status.

Table 31

Stepwise Regression of Social Isolation Index With Marital Status and Race/Age Interaction Variables

Step	Variable entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Marital status	.001	.04	.16
2	Race/age interaction	.012	.06	.28

N = 586

As seen in Table 32, virtually none of the variance in powerlessness was explained by the independent variables. In addition to the independent variables mentioned above, dummy variables were included for the six counties in the study as possible predictors of powerlessness, but none of these dummy variables representing counties were statistically significant. Apparently the differences in feelings of powerlessness cannot be explained by differences in county power structure.

Table 32

Stepwise Regression of Powerlessness Index With Unemployment/Employment Status Variable

Step	Variable entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Unemployment/employment	.021	.02	.13

N = 586

Summary Statement

Whereas findings relative to alienation among the respondents as measured through social isolation and powerlessness were not unexpected, in the light of results on self-esteem and job motivation it could be surmised that this particular variable would not be a major psychic barrier in the acceptance of new ideas. Similarly, the authoritarianism index used here did not produce surprising findings among this rural low income population, and the expectation that the younger and the better educated would be less tradition-bound and more receptive to new ideas and economic opportunity programs appears to be particularly important.

CHAPTER VI

INCENTIVES AND CONSTRAINTS RELATED TO ACCEPTANCE OF NEW IDEAS AND SMALL-SCALE ECONOMIC ENTERPRISES

This chapter includes a description and analysis of data related to perceived incentives and constraints in the acceptance of new ideas and small-scale economic enterprises. Twenty-four items in Part B of the questionnaire probed respondents' perceptions of these incentives and constraints. Data on these items were collected from respondents of all ages, but for the following analyses those age 65 and older were excluded because it was assumed that these people were of retirement age. This was considered appropriate in regard to the possible adoption of small-scale economic enterprises.

The dependent variables included both individual and institutional incentives and constraints. The individual incentives and constraints included personality, age, and health. The social institutions hypothesized to encourage or restrain low income respondents in starting a small-scale economic enterprise were the family, social (community), religious, economic, educational, and political.

Of the 24 statements in Part B, eight mentioned the words "small business," seven mentioned or alluded to "making a living," and nine could be applied to but did not specifically mention starting a small business. An example of the first type of statement is "Police protection is offered for people like me who have small businesses." An example of the second type is "I think I am too old to try out new ways of making a living." An example of the third type of item is "My health wouldn't stop me from pursuing any reasonable activity."

Responses to Part B items were coded on a five-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The statements were classified into seven categories (i.e., six institutional and one individual). These seven institutional and individual variables were computed by summing the items which fell into each of the seven categories. Additionally, factor analysis produced three factor score variables computed from the factor score coefficient martix. The factor analysis was used primarily for two reasons: (1) as an exploratory device; and (2) to make a preliminary examination of the relationships between incentives/constraints (dependent variables) and the demographic/psychological variables (independent variables).

In addition to the results of the multivariate analyses, the following sections present the distribution of responses to Part B items by those in the sample under age 65.

Individual Trait Effects

Table 33 displays the six items classified as individual traits and the percentages of responses by strength of opinion. Over three-fourths of the respondents indicated that they

Table 33

Opinion Distribution on Six Individual Trait Items as Incentives or Constraints Among the Rural Poor Under 65

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Unde-cided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Response
1. "I would like to try new work if it meant I would make more money"	75%	12%	3 %	3%	6%	1%
2. "I'm the type of person who likes to try something new, like a new job, if the opportunity comes along"	69%	14%	4%	5%	7%	1%
3. "I think I am too old to try new ways of making a living"	15%	9%	4%	13%	59%	1%
4. "I am the type of person who doesn't like to take any risks or chances with my income, even if I would be better off to do so"	47%	12%	7%	14%	19%	1%
5. "My health wouldn't stop me from pursuing any reasonable activity"	46%	11%	5%	10%	28%	a
6. "I wouldn't mind the responsibility of a small business if it meant I had extra money to spend"	71%	11%	4%	5%	6%	3%

[a] Less than .5%   N = 353

would like to try new work and would not mind the responsibility of a small business if it meant they would have additional income. Nearly three-fourths (72%) did not feel too old to try new ways of making a living.

To these people under age 65, personal health was perceived as more of a constraint than age. Over one-third (38%) felt that their health would stop them from pursuing "any resonable activity."

Table 34 shows perceived incentives or constraints due to age by respondents categorized in actual age groupings. As expected, subjective statements about age were highly associated with actual age (gamma=.60). In this rural low income population, which is old in comparison to the regional population as a whole due to selective out-migration, age appeared to be a significant constraint to implementing poverty programs. At the same time, however, among the oldest respondents under retirement age, one-half would not eliminate themselves from self-help programs on the basis of age.

Table 35 displays perceived health effects according to conditions of health as reported by respondents. Respondents' actual health was ascertained in the first part of the questionnaire, in a set of objective questions. The statement, "My health wouldn't stop me from pursuing any reasonable activity," was presented in the context of incentives or constraints to starting a small-scale economic enterprise.

Table 34

Perceived Age Effects by Actual Age Groups of Respondents

	18-34	35-48	49-57	58-64	Total
Agree	2% (7)	2% (9)	7% (25)	12% (41)	23% (82)
Undecided	0	1% (3)	1% (4)	2% (6)	4% (13)
Disagree	23% (79)	23% (79)	15% (54)	12% (42)	73% (254)
Total	25% (86)	26% (91)	23% (83)	26% (89)	100% (349)

Note: N's are in parentheses.

Table 35

Perceived Health Effects by Actual Health Conditions of Respondents

	Excellent or good	Fair	Poor or very poor	Total
Agree	32% (113)	18% (64)	7% (25)	57% (202)
Undecided	2% (8)	2% (6)	1% (5)	5% (19)
Disagree	6% (22)	6% (21)	25% (88)	37% (131)
Total	41% (143)	26% (91)	33% (118)	100% (352)

Note: N's are in parentheses.
gamma =.70

Restrictions on respondents due to health were more important than restrictions due to age. The two variables displayed in Table 35 are highly correlated (gamma=.70). While less than one-fourth (24%) of the respondents agreed that their age would restrict their income-related activities (see Item 3 in Table 33), over one-third (38%) agreed that their health would restrict them from "reasonable activities" (see Item 5 in Table 33). Community development leaders will need to be aware of the importance of health as a variable which may inhibit low income persons' responses to community development projects. While the direction of the relationship between health and poverty status remains uncertain, health, nevertheless, appears to be a factor which must be considered in efforts to alleviate poverty.

Forty-seven percent of the variance in individual traits as incentives or constraints in the adoption of small business was explained by eight variables (significant at the .05 level) in a stepwise regression (see Table 36). These variables, in order of importance, were health, age, physical disability, job motivation, social isolation, car ownership, sex, and voter registraition. Several of these variables, most obviously car ownership and voter registration, are considered surrogates representing underlying characteristics such as mobility and personal or political efficacy. Similarly, sex, age, and race are considered known surrogates for certain behaviors and roles.

While $\underline{r}^2$ identifies how much of the variance in the

Table 36

Stepwise Regression of Individual Traits as Incentives or Constraints With Demographic and Other Independent Variables

Step	Variable Entered[a]	Significance	$\underline{r}^2$	β
1	Health	0	.23	.22
2	Age	.000	.30	.41
3	Physical disability	.000	.36	.25
4	Job motivation	.000	.39	.17
5	Social isolation	.009	.41	.13
6	Car ownership	.002	.43	26
7	Sex	.005	.45	.19
8	Voter registration	.026	.47	.10

[a] Variables entered which were not significant at the .05 level included employment, powerlessness, proportion of blacks in county of residence, an interaction variable for race and proportion of blacks in county, mobility, authoritarianism, educational level, religiosity, and social participation.

dependent variable may be explained by the independent variables, β specifies the relationship. The standardized β coefficient represents the amount of change in a dependent variable produced by a change of one standard deviation in the independent variable, while $\underline{r}^2$ indicates the accuracy of predictions.[1]

Table 36 shows that a change (of one standard deviation) in age would have the greatest effect in changing the dependent variable, i.e., and index of personal characteristics viewed as incentives/constraints in adopting small businesses.

Car ownership had the next greatest effect, as measured by the size of the standardized regression coefficient, and this importance of car ownership merited further investigation. Unlike health, age, and, indirectly, physical disability, car ownership was not closely related to any item included in the dependent variable.

Since actual health was used to predict a dependent variable including perception of effects of health, and since actual age was used to predict the same dependent variable including perception of effects of age, health and age were expected to be significant. Car ownership, however, had an unexpected effect--the data showed car ownership to be associated with the type of person who would like to try a new way of making a living.

In summary, it could be expected that a rural low income person in his/her twenties through forties, whose health is good, and who owns a car would be willing to try a new business on the basis of his/her own mental and physical traits.

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[1] Hubert M. Blalock, Jr., Social Statistics (2nd ed. ; New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1972).

Institutional Effects

Family Institutions

Responses to the five items included to explore the effects of the family institution on acceptance of small businesses is shown in Table 37. Four-fifths (80%) of the respondents claimed that their families would not hold them back if they wanted to try something new to make a living, and 81% felt that their families would help them with a small business if the opportunity presented itself. Three-fourths (74%) of the respondents disagreed that family duties kept them too busy to try new ways of making a living. One-half (52%) felt that their families would not object if they had to leave the area for a short time to be in a training program. Of the family institutution items, this last one represented the greatest constraint to starting a small business.

Sixty percent (60%) of the respondents claimed that their families were happy with their present life styles. This present satisfaction may be viewed less as a constraint and more as a lack of family incentive to get ahead economically.

All independent variables, hypothesized to explain attitudes or behavior, were regressed with a dependent family institution variable created by summing the five

Table 37

Opinion Distribution on Five Family Institution Items as Incentives or Constraints Among the Rural Poor Under 65

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Response
1. "If I wanted to try something new to make a living my family would hold me back"	9%	5%	4%	16%	64%	3%
2. "My family would help me with a small business if I had the opportunity to start one"	72%	9%	4%	4%	9%	3%
3. "Family duties keep me too busy to try new ways of making a living"	9%	9%	4%	19%	55%	4%
4. "My family would not object if I had to leave this area for a short time to be in a training program"	37%	15%	9%	14%	23%	4%
5. "My family is happy with its present life style"	39%	21%	4%	13%	22%	1%

N = 353

family question items. Variables found to be significant (.05 level) were sex, self-esteem, powerlessness, and job motivation (see Table 38). These data show that approximately one-fourth of the variance in the family institution as an incentive or constraint was explained by these four variables.

Table 38

Stepwise Regression of the Family Institution
as an Incentive or Constraint with
Demographic and Psychological Variables

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	$\underline{r}^2$	β
1	Sex	0	.15	.31
2	Self-esteem	.001	.19	.17
3	Powerlessness	.014	.21	.17
4	Job motivation	.009	.24	.10

Through the stepwise regression, a respondent's sex was found to be the most significant independent variable explaining the family institution as an incentive or constraint--males appeared to be less restricted by family life. The three remaining variables found to be significant in explaining the family institution as an incentive or constraint were psychological measures--self-esteem, powerlessness, and job motivation.

In summary, the sex role must be considered an important variable in community development where family responsibilities may help or hinder the success of a program. Self-esteem, powerlessness, and job motivation appear to be much less important by comparison. However, they may be viewed as the significant psychological variables which exert an impact on the rural poor's acceptance of or desire to improve their economic status. The distribution of opinions in Table 37 indicated that, except for the possibility of a respondent's leaving home for a training program, in general, the family was not likely to be perceived as a constraint.

Social (Community) Institutions

Table 39 displays a distribution of opinions on the two items regarding social (community) institutions. As great a proportion of respondents agreed (41%) as disagreed (43%) that people in their communities might make fun of them if they tried something new, and twice the proportion agreed (61%) as disagreed (32%) that they would not do something disapproved of by their neighbors. This indicates that if a low income individual felt that neighbors did not approve of his/her starting a small business, social pressure could inhibit the undertaking. However, the statements presented to respondents did not ask whether or not they felt their communities or neighbors would disapprove of their taking part in a program to alleviate poverty. If neighbors approved in that case, the same need for social approval could have a positive effect.

The dependent social (community) institution variable

Table 39

Opinion Distribution on Two Social (Community) Institution Items as Incentives or Constraints Among the Rural Poor Under 65

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Response
1. "In this community, people make fun of you if you do something which no one else has tried before"	26%	15%	11%	17%	26%	5%
2. "I do not think I would do something which my neighbors do not approve"	47%	14%	6%	14%	18%	1%

N = 353

was computed by summing the two social (community) institution items. The stepwise regression in Table 40 shows that three variables were significant (.05 level) in explaining this dependent variable--age, authoritarianism, and physical disability. It should be noted that even though these three variables were found to be significant for social (community) institutions as incentives or constraints, relatively little variance was explained (only 13%). Standardized regression coefficients rounded to the nearest one hundredth were the same ($B = .15$) for all three significant variables. A change of one standard deviation in any of the independent variables would have a mild impact on the dependent variable.

Table 40

Stepwise Regression of Social (Community) Institutions as Incentives or Constraints With Demographic, Psychological, and Background Variables

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Age	.000	.07	.15
2	Authoritarianism	.005	.10	.15
3	Physical disability	.015	.13	.15

The importance of age in this study was reinforced. As previously noted, age also predicted the dependent variable of individual traits as incentives or constraints. Physical disability may be considered a surrogate variable for an attitudinal or behavioral role of the disabled, and perhaps the disabled pay more attention than the typical rural low income person to their neighbors' opinions because they are more confined to their homes and neighborhoods.

Religious Institutions

A distribution of responses to the two items measuring religious incentives and constraints is displayed in Table 41. Only 13% of the respondents agreed that it was against their religious beliefs to accept changes, while 79% disagreed. One-third (32%) agreed that everything was already planned and that there was no use in trying to change things, while 61% disagreed with this statement. Although few respondents perceived accepting change to be against their religious beliefs, approximately one-third apparently had fatalistically accepted their low income status. The following analysis will provide some insight into this fatalistic attitude.

Six independent variables were found to be significant (.05 level) in the stepwise regression with religious institutions, explaining 27% of the variance in religious incentives or constraints (see Table 42). Two psychological variables, job motivation and self-esteem, and one demographic variable, age, explained most of the variance in religious institutions. Respondents who scored high in job motivation and self-esteem were more inclined to disagree that their lives were already planned. Older respondents, the more socially participative, the physically disabled, and the more authoritarian respondents were more likely to oppose change

Table 41

Opinion Distribution on Two Religious Institution Items as Incentives or Constraints Among the Rural Poor Under 65

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Unde-cided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Response
1. "It is against my religious beliefs to accept new changes"	10%	3%	7%	13%	66%	3%
2. "I believe everything is already planned and there is no use trying to change things"	22%	10%	7%	13%	48%	2%

$\underline{N}$ = 353

for religious reasons. Since one component of the social participation variable was church attendance, and since the impact of social participation on religious incentive and constraint is revealed in Table 42 as slight (β =.07), it appears that although social participation is not related to religious incentive, church attendance has a significant but very mild impact.

Table 42

Stepwise Regression of Religious Institutions as Incentives or Constraints With Demographic and Other Independent Variables

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Job motivation	0	.12	.20
2	Self-esteem	.000	.19	.21
3	Age	.003	.22	.22
4	Social participation	.028	.24	.07
5	Physical disability	.038	.25	.13
6	Authoritarianism	.038	.27	.12

Economic Institutions

The economic institution measure consisted of one item--respondents were asked if they would invest money, if they had it, in a small business. Table 43 reveals that a slightly greater proportion of respondents expressed the opinion that they would not put money into a small business (49%) than those who would (41%).

Table 43

Opinion Distribution on an Economic Incentive or Constraint Item Among the Rural Poor Under 65

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No response
"If I had the money I wouldn't put it in a small business"	41%	8%	9%	10%	31%	2%

N = 353

Economic institution constraints on low income people are apparently substantial, but, fortunately, this constraint is one which poverty program policy can help alleviate. These individuals could probably be encouraged to accept small businesses if they were given assurance that their investment was insured against loss.

Three variables--sex, self-esteem, and age--were found to be significant in explaining economic incentives and constraints (see Table 44). These variables explained 12% of the variance in economic institutions as incentives or constraints. Sex had the greatest impact on willingness to invest in a business--males were more likely to agree that they would invest available money in a business than were females. Self-esteem and age were statistically significant but had only very slight impact.

Table 44

Stepwise Regression of Economic Incentives or Constraints With Demographic and Psychological Variables

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	$\underline{r}^2$	β
1	Sex.	.000	.07	.24
2	Self-esteem	.004	.10	.11
3	Age	.040	.12	.18

Educational Institutions

Table 45 displays opinions on the question used as a measure of educational incentive or constraint. Over one-half of the respondents (59%) agreed that they would have difficulty starting a business because of lack of education. One-third (36%) disagreed that a lack of education would hold them back.

Table 45

Opinion Distribution on an Educational Institution Incentive or Constraint Item Among the Rural Poor Under 65

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No response
"If I wanted to start my own little business, I would have difficulty because I don't have enough education"	43%	16%	4%	16%	20%	1%

Table 46 displays significant variables in a stepwise regression of educational incentives or constraints with the independent variables. Actual education, self-esteem, proportion of blacks in the county of residence, sex, and media consumption were statistically significant (.05 level), explaining 36% of the variance.

It was no surprise that actual education explained most of the variance in perceived effect of education. Respondents apparently recognized the limits or opportunities their education provided them for dealing with the marketplace.

More interesting was the impact of other variables on perceived educational liabilities or advantages once the effect of actual years of schooling was controlled. Both self-esteem and media consumption had a notable effect on perceived educational incentives or constraints, and both the proportion of blacks in the respondent's county and sex had a mild impact.

Table 46

Stepwise Regression of Educational Incentives or Constraints With Demographic and Other Independent Variables

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	$\underline{r}^2$	β
1	Education	0	.24	.49
2	Self-esteem	.000	.28	.34
3	Proportion of blacks in county of residence	.002	.31	.15
4	Sex	.001	.34	.12
5	Media consumption	.015	.36	.23

When the variable of actual education was controlled, it was found that the higher a respondent's self-esteem and the higher a respondent's intake of news and educational information, the more likely the respondent was to disagree that he/she would have difficulty starting a small business because of a lack of education. Community development organizers in rural areas could take advantage of this information by encouraging their clients to watch or listen to news programs on television or radio as a means of overcoming perceived educational constraints. The data indicated that people felt less threatened by lack of education if they were informed on public affairs.

Political Institutions

For one important social institution, the political power structure, no significant explanatory variables were found. Race, county of residence, age, education, and many other independent variables were not significant in regression equations, meaning that individuals who expressed agreement or disagreement with the statements about political institutions were heterogeneous according to measures used in this study.

Based on a history of white control of these southern counties with large proportions of poor blacks, it was expected in this study that racial differences in perceptions of the local political power structure would be identified as a constraint to getting ahead. The fact that these racial differences did not exist was itself an interesting finding. In fact, the only substantial racial difference in measures of behavior or attitudes was the difference described earlier in a behavioral variable, social participation.

Table 47 is a distribution of opinions on the six items involving the local political power structure. Responses to these items were fairly evenly distributed in the range from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." Greater proportions of responses on these items were in the "undecided" and "no response" categories than on the remaining items in Part B.

Greater proportions of respondents expressed the feeling that local officials, community leaders, and local politicians would constrain rather than encourage them to get ahead. A

Table 47

Opinion Distribution on Six Political Institution Items as Incentives or Constraints Among the Rural Poor Under 65

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Response
1. "If I were starting a small business, local officials might make it hard with their rules and regulations"	30%	24%	16%	13%	9%	7%
2. "Local Community leaders like to keep things as they are"	45%	21%	13%	10%	7%	5%
3. "Local politicians would be pleased if someone like myself tried to get ahead"	19%	16%	13%	18%	28%	7%
4. "Police protection is offered for people like me who have small businesses"	43%	26%	9%	9%	9%	5%
5. "If I started a small business, I think officials of county departments would support me"	22%	23%	17%	16%	18%	6%
6. "Community leaders would help me get a little business started so I could make more money"	16%	24%	12%	14%	25%	8%

N = 353

substantial majority (69%) felt that people like themselves would receive police protection. Low proportions of "undecided" and "no response" answers further evidenced the strength of these opinions.

A greater proportion of respondents felt that officials of county departments would support them than felt would not support them. Approximately the same proportion of respondents felt that community leaders would help them get a little business started than would not.

Both questions #2 and #6 involved perceptions about community leaders, but responses to the former indicated that community leaders were perceived more as a constraint than an incentive, while responses to the latter indicated that opinions were evenly divided. When the strengths of these opinions were examined, however, they were found to be more heavily in "slight agreement" or "strong disagreement," reconciling the apparent inconsistency.

In summary, the low income rural people in this study perceived local officials, local community leaders, and local politicians as more of a hindrance than a help to them in getting ahead economically. Most felt that police protection would be provided for them, and more respondents than not felt that county officials would help them. To effectively implement the adoption of small-scale economic enterprises by the poor as a community development project, it appears that greater success might be predicted through enlisting the support of officials in county departments than through local officials, local community leaders, or local politicans.

Job Opportunities

An item was included which asked if the respondents felt it was lack of job opportunities rather than lack of education which held them back. Table 48 displays opinions on this question item. Sixty percent of the respondents agreed it was lack of job opportunities which held them back, 27% disagreed, and 14% were undecided or did not respond.

Table 48

Opinion Distribution on a Job Opportunity Incentive or Constraint Item Among the Rural Poor Under 65

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No response
"I think it's my lack of job opportunities and not my lack of education which holds me back"	45%	15%	8%	9%	18%	6%

Of the 60% in agreement, 45% "strongly agreed" with the statement. Proportions of "strongly agree" related to an institutional constraint were as great for only two other question items (i.e., "Local community leaders like to keep things as they are," and "I do not think I would do something which my neighbors do not approve").

Although three independent variables--education, physical disability, and religiosity--were found to predict job opportunity opinions (see Table 49), their impact was mild and little variance was explained.

Table 49

Stepwise Regression of Job Opportunity With Background and Attitudinal Variables

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	$\underline{r}^2$	β
1	Education	.004	.04	.15
2	Physical disability	.035	.05	.15
3	Religiosity	.047	.07	.15

The importance of education in explaining job opportunity opinion must be discounted because the opinion item included the phrase "and not my lack of education." To conclude, there was strong agreement by respondents as a whole that job opportunities restricted them, but only 7% of the variance in these opinions could be explained. This means that the perception of lack of job opportunities cuts across age, health, and psychological measures in this rural low income population. Apparently, this population perceived a need for increased job opportunities and felt that new opportunities for making a living must be introduced to alleviate poverty in northwest Florida.

Factor Analysis of Incentives and Constraints

This section is a discussion of the use and outcomes of the factor analysis procedures in relation to this study. Kim's (1975) observation serves as an appropriate introduction:

> The single most distinctive characteristic of factor analysis is its data-reduction capability. Given an array of correlation coefficients for a set of variables, factor-analytic techniques enable us to see whether some underlying pattern of relationships exists such that the data may be "rearranged" or "reduced" to a smaller set of factors or components that may be taken as source variables accounting for the observed interrelations in the data.[2]

The following description will show that 11 of the 24 incentive and constraint items were included within three factor variables, indicating that the items in Part B of the questionnaire could not be reduced effectively through factor analysis. However, factor analysis did identify sources of common variance in the data--political institutions, individual traits, and a dimension comprised of one individual trait (age) and several institutional items.

Several of the political institution items were only weakly related to the others. Furthermore, the five family institution items were not correlated highly enough to form an additional factor. Although individual trait items appeared to be as diverse as family institution items, factor analysis showed that they were less diverse and could be combined to form a composite individual trait index.

---

[2] Jae-On Kim, "Factor Analysis," in Statistical Package for the Social Sciences by N. H. Nie, C. H. Hull, J. G. Jenkins, K. Steinbrenner, and D. H. Bent (2nd ed., New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1975), p. 469.

The three factor variables which emerged are discussed in the following sections.

Factor 1: Willingness

The first factor was defined by the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\text{Willingness}} = {} & .70705 \times (\text{B8}^{*}-1.5087)/1.0961 \\ & + .62565 \times (\text{B9}^{*}-1.6762)/1.2299 \\ & + -.41635 \times (\text{B10}^{*}-3.9427)/1.5246 \\ & + .51068 \times (\text{B12}^{*}-2.6136)/1.7357 \\ & + .56358 \times (\text{B13}^{*}-1.6017)/1.1835 \end{aligned}$$

Only highly loaded variables were included in this factor-scale variable. Factor-score coefficients were multiplied by standardized variable scores and then summed. For example, in the first line of the equation for willingness, .70705 was the factor-score coefficient, 1.5087 was the mean, and 1.0961 was the standard deviation for item B8.[3]

This factor variable was composed of five items measuring incentives and constraints, including the following:

1. B8 I would like to try new work if it meant I would make more money.
2. B9 I'm the type of person who likes to try something new, like a new job, if the opportunity comes along.
3. B10 I think I am too old to try out new ways of making a living.

---

*Statement number.

[3] Ibid. See Kim on building composite indices from the factor-score coefficient matrix, pp. 487-490.

4. B12 My health wouldn't stop me from pursuing any reasonable activty.

5. B13 I wouldn't mind the responsibility of a small business if it meant I had extra money to spend.

In this first factor variable, willingness, incentives and constraints to starting small-scale economic enterprises were individual traits and not attributable to society's institutions. Individual traits were conceptualized as those personal characteristics which might inhibit or encourage acceptance of small-scale enterprises independent of external institutional pressures. The index included all individual trait items except "I am the type of person who doesn't like to take any risks or chances with my income, even if I would be better off to do so." Since this excluded item did not load on the individual trait factor, it was considered appropriate to view the item as an economic institutional constraint.

Twenty-seven percent of the variance in willingness was explained by eight independent variables significant at the .05 level. Table 50 summarizes the results of a stepwise regression of willingness with these independent variables. Better health, no disability, younger age, higher job motivation, being male, living in a county with a lower proportion of blacks, and feeling more powerful were associated with greater willingness to accept a small-scale economic enterprise.

As expected, variables explaining the computed willingness index were nearly the same as variables explaining the summed individual traits index. Proportions of blacks per county and powerlessness did not predict the individual traits index; social isolation and voter registration were included in the individual trait regression equation but not the willingness equation.

Table 50

Stepwise Regression of the Factor, Willingness, With Independent Variables[a]

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	$\underline{r}^2$	β
1	Health	0	.11	.14
2	Physical disability	.001	.15	.24
3	Age	.000	.19	.28
4	Job motivation	.029	.21	.16
5	Car ownership	.025	.22	.24
6	Sex	.015	.24	.17
7	Proportion of blacks in county of residence	.018	.26	.13
8	Powerlessness	.025	.27	.09

$\underline{N}$ = 334

[a] Respondents age 65 and older are excluded.

Demographic and other background and psychological variables were found to be significant predictors of attitudes throughout this study, but behavioral variables were found to have little explanatory power when included in regression equations.

As indicated previously, factor analysis is an exploratory device. Here it reconfirmed the significance of several key variables, including health, age, and job motivation, when the willingness factor-score index was regressed with independent variables.

Factor 2: Compliance

The second factor, compliance, was defined by the equation:

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{\text{Compliance}} = {} & .41522 \times (B10^{*}-3.9427)/1.5246 \\ & + .55810 \times (B21^{*}-4.2645)/1.2947 \\ & + .40082 \times (B22^{*}-2.5229)/1.6318 \\ & + .58937 \times (B24^{*}-3.5591)/1.6531\end{aligned}$$

The four items included in this factor were:

1. B10 I think I am too old to try out new ways of making a living.
2. B21 It is against my religious beliefs to accept new changes.
3. B22 If I wanted to start my own little business, I would have difficulty because I don't have enough education.
4. B24 I believe everything is already planned and there is no use in trying to change things.

The factor analysis indicated that the second dimension explaining common variance in the 24 incentive and constraint items included one individual trait item (age) and three items measuring the effects of two institutions (religion and education). Thus, religious institutions, educational institutions, and age accounted for common variance in Part B items, indicating that respondents had a tendency to view these three categories similarly as incentives or constraints. As a result, these items could be combined to form an index, which is here termed compliance.

---

*Statement number.

Eleven independent variables were significant at the .05 level explaining 46% of the variance in compliance. A summary of the regression of compliance with the independent variables is shown in Table 51.

Three variables related to race were significant in explaining compliance--proportion of blacks in the county of residence, race, and interaction of race and proportion of blacks per county. Table 51 shows that the greater the proportion of blacks per county, the less respondents perceived religious and educational institutional constraints in accepting change. Although this variable was found to be significant, its effect was negligible (β =.06).

Race had a substantial impact on the compliance variable (β =.41). Whites were much less likely than blacks to perceive religious and educational constraints.

The third racial variable explaining compliance was the interaction of race and proportion of blacks per county. In other words, living in a county with a large proportion of blacks would have a different effect on compliance for blacks than for whites. The standardized regression coefficient (β =.44) was even greater for this variable

Table 51

Stepwise Regression of the Factor, Compliance, With Independent Variables[a]

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Self-esteem	0	.18	.25
2	Age	.000	.26	.26
3	Job motivation	.000	.33	.19
4	Proportion of blacks in county of residence	.005	.35	.06
5	Race	.000	.38	.41
6	Physical disability	.004	.40	.16
7	Authoritarianism	.016	.42	.09
8	Interaction of race and proportion of blacks in county of residence	.016	.43	.44
9	Education	.044	.44	.14
10	Sex	.020	.45	.14
11	Employment/unemployment status	.045	.46	.11

$N = 334$

[a] Respondents age 65 and older are excluded.

than for race. Blacks were more compliant if they resided in a county with a low proportion of blacks than if they lived in a county with a high proportion of blacks. This substantial effect of the interaction of race and proportion of blacks per county was revealed only when factor analysis identified common variance in incentive and constraint items. To repeat, blacks were found to be less inhibited in some ways if they lived in counties with larger proportions of their race.

Other demographic and background variables having an effect on compliance were age, education, sex, and employment status. The young, better educated, male, and employed respondents felt less constrained by the common variant called compliance.

Factor 3: Power

A third common dimension in the incentive and constraint items was a factor-score index labeled power. This third factor was defined by the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{\text{Power}} &= .49048 \times (\text{B3}^{*}-3.2134)/1.5276 \\ &+ .71598 \times (\text{B5}^{*}-2.8459)/1.4409 \\ &+ .69291 \times (\text{B6}^{*}-3.0954)/1.4845\end{aligned}$$

Three of the five items probing incentives and constraints due to the local power structure were included in this factor, as follows:

1. B3 Local politicians would be pleased if someone like myself tried to get ahead.

---

*Statement number.

2. B5 If I started a small business, I think officials of county departments would support me.

3. B6 Community leaders would help me get a little business started so I could make more money.

Table 52 shows that variance in power was virtually unexplained by the independent variables. Factor analysis confirmed the findings of the summed five items making up the institutional power index, but variation in perceived incentives or constraints embodied in governmental officials was not amenable to explanation by the independent variables.

Table 52

Stepwise Regression of the Factor, Power, With Independent Variable[a]

Step	Variable Entered	Significance	r^2	β
1	Powerlessness	.05	.02	.10

$N = 311$

[a]Respondents age 65 and older are excluded.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter includes a brief summary of the study on incentives and constraints as perceived by the low income rural population of six selected northwestern Florida counties. In addition, the chapter presents conclusions and implications drawn by the researchers regarding the effects of these perceived incentives and constraints on the acceptance of new ideas and economic opportunity programs.

Summary

Prior to undertaking a major project of institution building as a strategy to reduce rural poverty, the study reported herein was conducted as Phase I of that developmental activity to gain an understanding of the institutional incentives and constraints which significantly affect the behavior of rural low income people in terms of adopting new ideas and small-scale economic enterprises. The sample consisted of 586 heads of households in six selected counties of northwest Florida.

These low income respondents were interviewed by trained field staff using a pretested, precoded survey instrument designed to secure data on background, behavioral, attitudinal, and psychological variables. In addition, the questionnaire elicited information on perceived individual and institutional incentives and constraints.

Following the field interviewing process, the investigation proceeded with computerized analyses of the findings utilizing a variety of statistical tests.

Conclusions

From the findings generated by this six-county study, certain conclusions may be drawn about this rural low income population and its perceived incentives and constraints to the acceptance of new ideas and small-scale economic enterprises. These conclusions are as follows:

1. Typically, this low income population has less than a high school education (6.2 years of schooling as opposed to 9 years in the general population), does not often read newspapers or magazines but does regularly watch television, and is active in registering to vote (79%) and in exercising that vote (65% voted in the last national, state, and local elections).
2. A high level of unemployment (24%) prevails among the working age population (approximately 60% of the sample), with blacks and whites equally jobless. However, among the employed, black heads of households are substantially more represented than whites (56% to 38%), with nonworking whites reporting disability twice as often as blacks.
3. This low income population is highly motivated toward employment (83% prefer to earn less money and work

than to receive welfare and not work), especially the males, those not disabled, those in better health, and those who do not feel powerless.

4. A strong feeling pervades this rural low income population that lack of job opportunities restricts them in their efforts to get ahead (60%).
5. The more socially participative (as measured by church attendance, club attendance, and visiting with friends or relatives) among this population are black, with higher education levels, females, and car owners. Blacks are much more inclined to be churchgoers (75%) than whites (37%), blacks hold club memberships more than whites (41% as opposed to 9%), and tend to visit regularly with friends or relatives more than whites (68% as opposed to 44%).
6. The more mobile in this population tend to be younger persons, car owners, and those in better health.
7. Aspiration levels are high among this population, cutting across race, levels of education, and age.
8. The characteristics considered most important to getting ahead by this population are: God, ability, hard work, better opportunities, and education. Although varying by race, educational level, and age, these contain qualities which, for the most part, can be achieved through human efforts--both those which can be attined by low income individuals themselves as well as those enabled by others in positions of support.

9. Assessment of treatment by authorities (i.e., police and government office workers) tends to be positive among this low income population (approximately three-fourths of the sample feel that they would be treated the same as other people by these authorities).
10. Self-esteem is generally at a high level among these individuals, particularly those in better health, with more education, employed, and less religious.
11. The more flexible and more open to change (i.e., less authoritarian) among these low income individuals tend to be those who are better educated and younger.
12. Generally, this population views the world as a friendly place but is hesitant about the futrue.
13. Although willing to try new work and take on responsibility, these rural low income individuals consider poor health, older age, and lack of transportation as significant constraints.
14. Although the population considers the family as supportive, they at the same time indicate (60%) that their families are happy with their present lifestyles.
15. The approval of neighbors is viewed as important in new ventures by these individuals (61%), and there is a hesitancy to try something new for fear of disapproval by neighbors.
16. Religion, which is significant in the lives of most of these individuals, does not appear to be an inhibiting factor in the acceptance of change.

17. Economic circumstances create substantial constraints for these low income people, not only in the obvious lack of financial resources but also in a generally typical hesitancy to invest those scarce resources in new undertakings.

18. Generally, lack of education is viewed as a constraint among these individuals, with actual education a significant influencing factor. With actual education controlled, however, it appears that those who possess a high level of self-esteem and those who utilize the media for intake of news and educational information perceive lack of education as much less inhibiting.

19. These low income rural people tend to perceive local officials as inhibiting but, on the other hand, tend to view county agency officials as supporting and encouraging.

20. The proportion of blacks in the county of residence apparently is an important influencing factor in the acceptance of change by blacks as revealed through factor analysis. Willingness by blacks to accept new ideas or adopt small-scale economic enterprises appears to increase as the proportion of blacks in the county decreases. On the other hand, blacks seem to be less compliant if they live in a county with a high proportion of blacks.

21. Throughout this study the variables of self-esteem, health, age, and job motivation were noted to be

significant influencing characteristics.

Implications

Based on the foregoing conclusions about this population and its percentions, the following implications for development of economic opportunity programs are suggested:

1. Attitudes of these rural low income people about the world in general, future goals (aspirations), resources necessary to improve present situations (characteristics important to getting ahead), and support from others (family and authorities) appear to create a generally positive atmosphere for the introduction of new ideas. This may be particularly important when related to the establishment of small-scale economic enterprises which would be operated by the people themselves.
2. The high levels of self-esteem and job motivation create a circumstance which is conducive to the introduction of new ideas. This receptivity, coupled with the void now sorely felt in the lack of jobs and job opportunities, suggests that not only are these individuals looking for economic opportunities but that they are also of the opinion that they can take advantage of such. Apparently, this population perceives a need for increased job opportunities and feels that new opportunities for making a living must

be introduced to alleviate poverty in northwest Florida.

3. The proportions of registered voters and those exercising this prerogative might be interpreted as an indication of this population's interest in determining, at least to some extent, their own circumstances.
4. The findings regarding patterns of social participation and mobility furnish important information in identifying those people most likely to participate in economic programs and those most capable of doing so. For example, blacks might be reached through religious and club affiliations whereas it would be a less productive means of identifying and contacting whites because of their lower participation levels.
5. Based on individual traits, those who are younger, in better health, and who own cars appear to be the best prospects for contact about entering into new economic enterprises.
6. The importance of family and neighbor support must not be overlooked, but rather can be capitalized on to gain interest in and commitment to an economic opportunity program. Although there is indication of satisfaction with present family lifestyles, this may best be viewed as less a constraint and more a lack of family incentive to get ahead economically. Given appropriate and realistic opportunities, this incentive may be nourished.

7. Based on conclusion number 20, it seems plausible that in counties with proportionately fewer blacks there will be less resistance by blacks to new ideas if those new ideas are economic opportunities characterized by low risk involvement and high probability of success. To account for this, it could be hypothesized that, in such counties, the low income black population continues to use successful whites as economic referents--either because of conceptions of blacks as unsuccessful in economic enterprises or because of a persisting tradition to gauge socio-economic success by white models.
8. The constraint of economics can be addressed through poverty program policy by giving individuals assurance that their investments will be insured against loss.
9. Regarding political institutions which restrain or encourage rural low income individuals, it appears that a tacit understanding exists in this area between the powerful and the powerless regarding preservation of the status quo in the local economy, including the labor market. This phenomenon has been described by one consultant who worked for many years in northwest Florida, observing that this situation was the greatest obstacle to the delivery of agricultural assistance to the poor. Additionally, literature evaluating failure of poverty programs in the 1960s supported the view that such programs failed due to lack of support

by local elites. To effectively implement the adoption of small-scale economic enterprises by the poor as a community development project, then, it appears that greater success might be predicted through enlisting the support of officials in county agencies than through local officials, local and county community leaders, or local and county politicians.

10. The predominant use of an audio-visual medium (i.e., television) suggests a pattern of media consumption which should be taken into account in information dissemination activities. In addition, because those who are well informed on public affairs feel less threatened by lack of education, the constraint of lower educational levels may be lessened by encouraging the utilization of television or radio for news and educational programs.

APPENDIX A

Florida map with sample counties shaded and project information.

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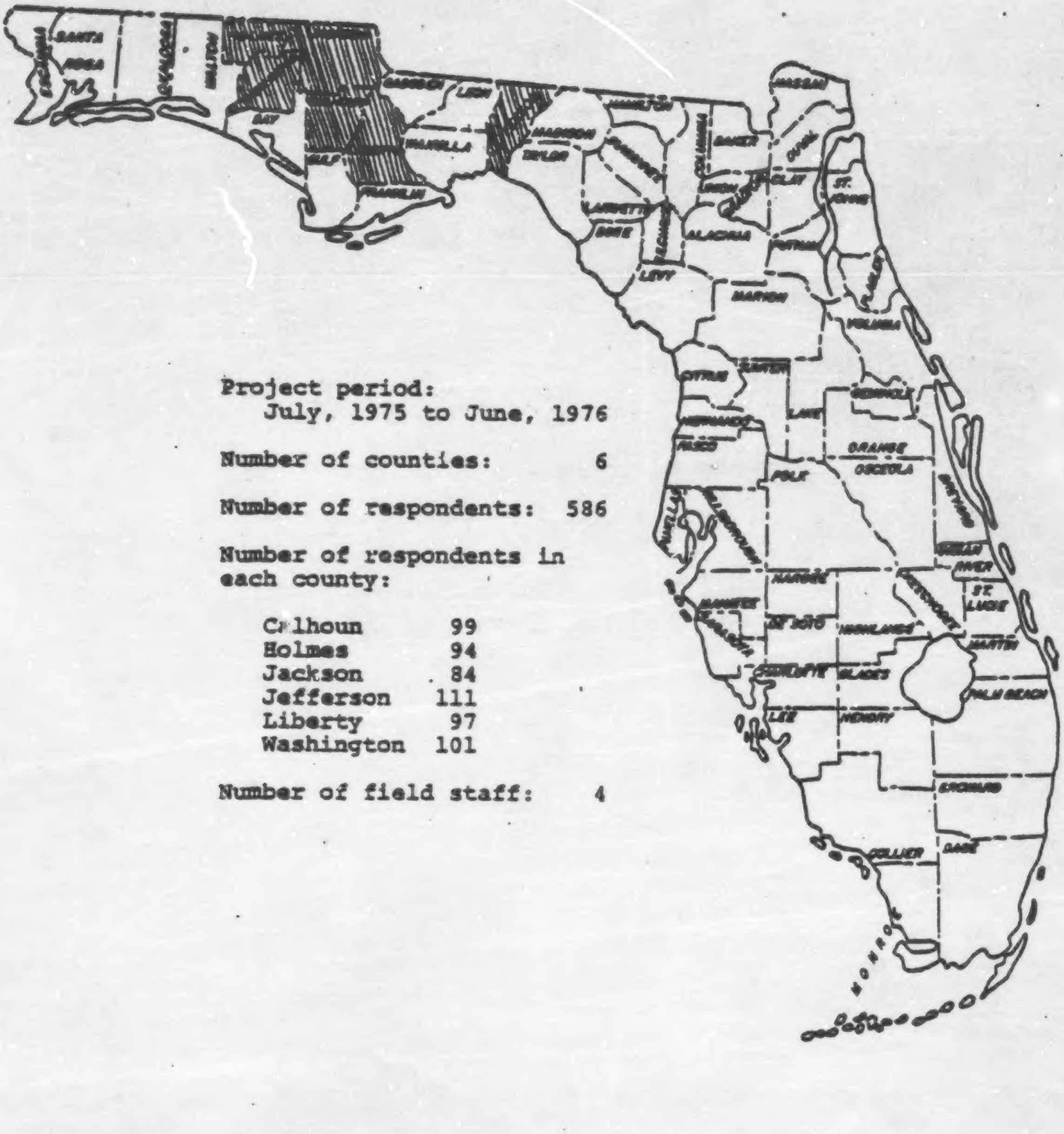
SANTA ROSA
OKALOOSA
WALTON
BAY
GULF
FRANKLIN
GADSDEN
LEON
WAKULLA
MADISON
TAYLOR
HAMILTON
NASSAU
BAKER
COLUMBIA
UNION
CLAY
ST. JOHNS
LAFAYETTE
DIXIE
ALACHUA
PUTNAM
LEVY
MARION
FLAGLER
VOLUSIA
CITRUS
SUMTER
LAKE
SEMINOLE
HERNANDO
PASCO
ORANGE
OSCEOLA
BREVARD
POLK
HARDEE
INDIAN RIVER
MANATEE
DE SOTO
HIGHLANDS
ST. LUCIE
MARTIN
CHARLOTTE
GLADES
PALM BEACH
LEE
HENDRY
BROWARD
COLLIER
DADE
MONROE

Project period:
July, 1975 to June, 1976

Number of counties: 6

Number of respondents: 586

Number of respondents in each county:

Calhoun	99
Holmes	94
Jackson	84
Jefferson	111
Liberty	97
Washington	101

Number of field staff: 4

APPENDIX B

Survey Instrument

IB-I-75

Community Development and Research Program
Florida A & M University
Tallahassee, Florida
32307

INSTITUTION BUILDING PROJECT: PHASE I

Incentives and Constraints Study

Part A

A-1 County ______________ 1 ☐

A-2 Section __________ 2 ☐

A-3 I.D. Number __________ 3-5 ☐

Name ______________________________
Last First Initial

A-4 Race:
1. Black ___
2. White ___
3. Other ___
(specify) __________ 6 ☐

A-5 Sex:
1. Male ___
2. Female ___
7 ☐

A-6 What is your age?
1. No. of years ___
2. Don't know ___
9. No answer ___
8-9 ☐

A-7 Are you married now?
1. Married ___
2. Unmarried ___
3. Divorced ___
4. Separated ___
5. Widow/ Widower ___
9. No answer ___
10 ☐

A-8 How many years have you been married/divorced/separated/widowed?
1. Under 5 years ___
2. 6 - 10 years ___
3. 11 - 20 years ___
4. over 20 years ___
5. Don't know ___
9.. No answer ___
11 ☐

A-9 How many family members live in this household?
______
12-13 ☐

A-10 How many children under 18 years of age are there living with you? ______________ 14 ☐

A-11 How many grades of school did you finish? ___ 15-16 ▱

A-12 Have you had any other schooling or training?

1. Yes ___
2. No ___
9. No response ___

17 ▱

A-13 If yes, what kind?

1. Vocational ___
2. Home management ___
3. Adult education ___
4. Leadership ___
5. Other (specify___________)
9. No response ___

18 ▱

A-14 Are you and your spouse working full time, part time, retired or unemployed at this time?

	Self	Spouse
1. Employed full time	___	___
2. Employed part time	___	___
3. Unemployed (more than one year)	___	___
4. Unemployed (less than one year)	___	___
5. Retired	___	___
6. Permanently disabled (under 65)	___	___
7. Housewife	___	___
9. No response	___	___
	19 ▱	20 ▱

A-15 If employed, do you (family head) work for yourself or someone else?

1. Self ___
2. Someone else ___
3. Both ___
9. No response ___

21 ▱

A-16 Is your family's work related to farming or non-farming?

1. Farming ___
2. Non-farming ___
3. Both ___
4. Retired farming ___
5. Retired non-farming ___
6. Retired both ___
9. No response ___

22 ▱

A-17 What exactly do you (or did you - if unemployed) do on your job?

1. operate own farm ____
2. tenant or share cropper ____
3. operate own farm as well as rent ____
4. farm laborer ____
5. both farming and other work ____
6. craftsman, operative (other than ordinary laborer) ____
7. laborer (odd jobs) ____
8. private household worker ____
9. other (specity________________) ____

23 ▱

(IF ANSWER IS # 1, 2, 3, or 5 ABOVE, ASK A-18-22, OTHERWISE SKIP TO # 23)

A-18 How many acres do you own/rent?

1. less than 5 acres ____
2. 5 - 10 acres ____
3. 10 - 20 acres ____
4. over 20 acres ____
9. no response ____

24 ▱

A-19 What main crops do you grow, and how many acres?

	Crop	No. of Acres
1. grains	____	____
2. tobacco	____	____
3. vegetables	____	____
4. mixed	____	____
5. fiber	____	____
6. other (specify____________)	____	____
7. vacant	____	____
9. no response	____	____
	25 ▱	26 ▱

A-20 How long have you been farming?

1. less than 5 years ____
2. 5 - 10 years ____
3. 10 - 20 years ____
4. over 20 years ____
9. no response ____

27 ▱

A-21 About how many weeks a year do you work in farming? ____________ 28-29 ☐

A-22 About how many hours a day do you work on that?

1. 2 - 3 hours ____
2. 4 - 7 hours ____
3. 8 - 10 hours ____
4. over 10 hours ____
9. no response ____ 30 ☐

IF ANSWER IS 5 IN A-17 (BOTH FARMING AND OTHER WORK), ASK A-23

A-23 What part of your income comes from farming?

1. almost all ____
2. most ____
3. about half ____
4. less than half ____
5. very small part ____
9. no response ____ 31 ☐

(IF ANSWER IS 6, 7, OR 8 IN A-17, ASK # A-24)

A-24 How many jobs have you had in the last three years?

1. none ____
2. 1 - 2 ____
3. 3 - 4 ____
4. more than 4 ____
9. no response ____ 32 ☐

A-25 Do you own or rent your house?

1. own ____
2. rent ____
3. free accommodation ____ 33 ☐

A-26 Does your house need major repairs?

1. yes ____
2. no ____
9. no response ____ 34 ☐

A-27 Do you own a car?

1. yes ____
2. no ____
9. no response ____ 35 ☐

A-28 How far is the place from your house where you do most of your shopping?

1. less than one mile ____
2. 1 - 2 miles ____
3. 3 - 5 miles ____
4. more than 5 miles ____
9. no response ____

36 ☐

A-29 How long have you lived in this community?

1. less than 5 years ____
2. 5 - 10 years ____
3. 11 - 20 years ____
4. over 20 years ____
9. no response ____

37 ☐

A-30 Do you read a newspaper and/or a magazine?

	a. Newspaper	b. Magazine
1. yes	____	____
2. no	____	____
9. no response	____	____
	38 ☐	39 ☐

(IF "YES" TO A-30-a ASK A-31)

A-31 How often do you read a newspaper?

1. almost every day ____
2. 3 - 4 times a week ____
3. less than 3 times a week ____
9. no response ____

40 ☐

A-32 Do you own a television and/or a radio?

	a. Television	b. Radio
1. yes	____	____
2. no	____	____
9. no response	____	____
	41 ☐	42 ☐

(IF "YES" TO A-32-a AND/OR -b ASK A-33)

A-33 Do you watch and/or listen to the news or educational programs on television and/or radio?

	a. Television	b. Radio
1. regularly	____	____
2. often	____	____
3. seldon	____	____
4. never	____	____
9. no response	____	____
	43 ☐	44 ☐

A-34 How often do you go to the closest city or county seat in an average month?

1. more than 4 times a month ____
2. 2 - 3 times a month ____
3. one time a month ____
4. once every 2-3 months ____
5. once or twice a year ____
6. never ____
9. no response ____ 45 ▱

A-35 How many times do you visit with your relatives or friends in the nearby communities?

1. more than 4 times a month ____
2. 2 - 3 times a month ____
3. one time a month ____
4. once every 2-3 months ____
5. once or twice a year ____
6. never ____
9. no response ____ 46 ▱

A-36 Are you registered to vote?

1. yes ____
2. no ____
3. don't know ____ 47 ▱

A-37 If yes, did you vote in the last elections?

	a. Presidential	b. State	c. County(Local)
1. yes	____	____	____
2. no	____	____	____
3. don't remember	____	____	____
	48 ▱	49 ▱	50 ▱

A-38 Are you a member of an organization or a group such as:	Code	A-39 Would you say you attend these meetings:	Code	A-40 About how many times a month do you go to such meetings?	Code	A-41 About how many people are in these meetings?	Code
a. Religious group or association 1. Yes __ 2. No __	51 ☐	1. Regularly __ 2. Often __ 3. Seldom __ 4. Never __	52 ☐	No. of times ___	53 ☐	1. less than 5 __ 2. 6 - 10 __ 3. 11 - 20 __ 4. more than 20 __	54 ☐
b. Local Community group or association 1. Yes __ 2. No __	55 ☐	1. Regularly __ 2. Often __ 3. Seldom __ 4. Never __	56 ☐	No. of times ___	57 ☐	1. less than 5 __ 2. 6 - 10 __ 3. 11 - 20 __ 4. more than 20 __	58 ☐
c. Neighborhood clubs or lodges 1. Yes __ 2. No __	59 ☐	1. Regularly __ 2. Often __ 3. Seldom __ 4. Never __	60 ☐	No. of times ___	61 ☐	1. less than 5 __ 2. 6 - 10 __ 3. 11 - 20 __ 4. more than 20 __	62 ☐
d. Other (specify______) 1. Yes __ 2. No __	63 ☐	1. Regularly __ 2. Often __ 3. Seldom __ 4. Never __	64 ☐	No. of times ___	65 ☐	1. less than 5 __ 2. 6 - 10 __ 3. 11 - 20 __ 4. more than 20 __	66 ☐

(IF "YES" TO A-38 a,b,c, OR d ASK A-42)

A-42 What do you usually discuss in these meetings?

	YES	NO	
1. Family issues	___	___	67 ☐
2. Local issues	___	___	68 ☐
3. Religious issues	___	___	69 ☐
4. Political issues	___	___	70 ☐
5. County or state issues	___	___	71 ☐
6. Recreational matters	___	___	72 ☐
7. Other (specify________________)			73 ☐

A-43 What is your family's general health?

	Your Health	Your Spouse's Health	Your Children's Health
0. N.A.	___	___	___
1. Excellent	___	___	___
2. Good	___	___	___
3. Fair	___	___	___
4. Poor	___	___	___
5. Very Poor	___	___	___
9. No response	___	___	___
	74 ☐	75 ☐	76 ☐

A-44 Are you currently receiving any public assistance?

1. S.S.I. ___
2. A.F.D.C. ___
3. Food Stamps ___
4. Other (specify_________) ___
5. S.S.I. and Food Stamps
6. A.F.D.C. and Food Stamps ___
7. Other and Food Stamps ___
8. No ___
9. No response ___

77 ☐

A-45 Would you say you go to church regularly, often, seldom or never?

1. Regularly ___
2. Often ___
3. Seldom ___
4. Never ___
9. No response ___

78 ☐

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A-46 Using your own definition of a religious person, how would you rate yourself?

1. Very religious ____
2. Quite religious ____
3. Somewhat religious ____
4. Not very religious ____
5. Not religious at all ____
9. No response ____

79 ▱ 80 ▱

INCENTIVES AND CONSTRAINTS STUDY

Part B

(Response Sheet)

Respondent I.D. No.___

	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Statement	Strongly agree	Slightly agree	Undecided	Slightly disagree	Strongly disagree	No response	Code
B-1 If I were starting a small business, local officials might make it hard with their rules and regulations.							06 ▱
B-2 Local Community leaders like to keep things as they are.							07 ▱
B-3 Local politicians would be pleased if someone like myself tried to get ahead.							08 ▱
B-4 Police protection is offered for people like me who have small businesses.							09 ▱
B-5 If I started a small business, I think officials of county departments would support me.							10 ▱
B-6 Community leaders would help me get a little business started so I could make more money.							11 ▱
B-7 If I had the money, I wouldn't put it in a small business.							12 ▱
B-8 I would like to try new work if it meant I would make more money.							13 ▱

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	Statement	1 Strongly agree	2 Slightly agree	3 Undecided	4 Slightly disagree	5 Strongly disagree	6 No response	Code
B-9	I'm the type of person who likes to try something new, like a new job, if the opportunity comes along.							14 ☐
B-10	I think I am too old to try out new ways of making a living.							15 ☐
B-11	I am the type of person who doesn't like to take any risks or chances with my income, even if I would be better off to do so.							16 ☐
B-12	My health wouldn't stop me from pursuing any reasonable activity.							17 ☐
B-13	I wouldn't mind the responsibility of a small business if it meant I had extra money to spend.							18 ☐
B-14	If I wanted to try something new to make a living, my family would hold me back.							19 ☐
B-15	My family would help me with a small business if I had the opportunity to start one.							20 ☐
B-16	Family duties keep me too busy to try new ways of making a living.							21 ☐
B-17	My family would not object if I had to leave this area for a short time to be in a training program.							22 ☐
B-18	My family is happy with its present life style.							23 ☐
B-19	In this community, people make fun of you if you do someting which no one else has tried before.							24 ☐
B-20	I do not think I would do something which my neighbors do not approve.							25 ☐

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	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Statement	Strongly agree	Slightly agree	Undecided	Slightly disagree	Strongly disagree	No response	Code
B-21 It is against my religious beliefs to accept new changes.							26 ☐
B-22 If I wanted to start my own little business, I would have difficulty because I don't have enough education.							27 ☐
B-23 I think it's my lack of job opportunities and not my lack of education which holds me back.							28 ☐
B-24 I believe everything is already planned and there is no use in trying to change things.							29 ☐

INCENTIVES AND CONSTRAINTS STUDY

Part C

Respondent I.D. No._______

(Response Sheet)

C-1 Where on the line would you put getting a good job?

Very important ____7

____6

____5

____4

____3

____2

Not important at all ____1

30 ☐

C-2 Where would you put getting more education?

Very important ____7

____6

____5

____4

____3

____2

Not important at all ____1

31 ☐

C-3 Where would you put earning more money?

Very important ____7
____6
____5
____4
____3
____2
Not important at all ____1

32

C-4 Where would you put getting job training?

Very important ____7
____6
____5
____4
____3
____2
Not important at all ____1

33

C-5 The most important characteristic to get ahead is:

___1. ability
___2. luck
___3. who you know
___4. hard work
___5. better opportunities
___6. God
___7. education
___9. no response

34

C-6 The next most important characteristic to get ahead is:

___1. ability
___2. luck
___3. who you know
___4. hard work
___5. better opportunites
___6. God
___7. education
___9. no response

35

C-7 If you had some trouble with the police -- a traffic violation maybe, or being accused of a minor offense -- do you think that most likely you would be given a harder time than other people, would be treated about the same as anyone else, or would be treated a little better than most people?

___1. better
___2. same
___3. harder time
___4. depends
___5. other (specify______________)
___6. don't know
___9. no response

36

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C-8 Suppose there were some questions that you had to take to a government office - for example, a tax question or a housing regulation. Do you think that most likely you would be given a harder time than other people, would be treated about the same as anyone else, or would be treated a little better than most people?

___1. better
___2. same
___3. harder time
___4. depends
___5. other
(specify ________)
6. don't know
___9. no response

37 ▱

	Statement	1 Agree	2 Undecided	3 Disagree	4 No response	Code
C-9	I feel that I have a number of good friends in this community.					38 ▱
C-10	There are a number of people in the community that I like to avoid meeting.					39 ▱
C-11	I get along pretty well with my neighbors.					40 ▱
C-12	I enjoy social gatherings just to be with people.					41 ▱
C-13	The most important virtues children should learn are to obey and respect authority.					42 ▱
C-14	Human nature, being what it is, there will always be war and fighting.					43 ▱
C-15	I think I would not go against an age-old tradition.					44 ▱
C-16	All laws should be strictly enforced no matter what the result.					45 ▱
C-17	I would enter a job training program if I knew there would be a job for me when I finished it.					46 ▱
C-18	I would never take a job that was beneath my dignity even if my family depended on it.					47 ▱

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	Statement	1 Agree	2 Undecided	3 Disagree	4 No response	Code
C-19	I would rather earn a little less money and work than receive welfare and not work.					48 ☐
C-20	If I had to work inconvenient hours to have a job, I would do it.					49 ☐
C-21	If a person doesn't enjoy his work he should quit even if he doesn't have another job to go to.					50 ☐
C-22	The future looks very bright.					51 ☐
C-23	Sometimes I feel all alone in the world.					52 ☐
C-24	The world we live in is basically a friendly place.					53 ☐
C-25	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.					54 ☐
C-26	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.					55 ☐
C-27	I am able to do things as well as most other people.					56 ☐
C-28	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.					57 ☐
C-29	At times I think that I am no good at all.					58 ☐
C-30	I certainly feel useless at times.					59 ☐
C-31	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.					60 ☐

RECORD RESPONDENT'S EXACT WORDS

C-32 What would you like to do to earn more?

____

____

FARMERS ONLY

C-33 Would you like to have help organizing a cooperative if it meant more money?

___1. Yes
___2. No
___3. Don't know, uncertain, depends 61
___9. No response ▱

FILL OUT AFTER THE INTERVIEW

C-34 Where was the interview held?

___1. Inside the house
___2. Outside the house
___3. Other 62
(specify____________) ▱

C-35 Who filled out Parts B and C?

___1. Respondent 63
___2. Investigator ▱

C-36 Were there other persons in the interview?

___1. Yes - children
___2. Yes - adults 64
___3. No ▱

C-37 Was the respondent receptive to the interview?

___1. Yes - very receptive
___2. Yes - somewhat receptive 65
___3. No ▱

C-38 What time of the day was the interview held?

___1. 8:00AM - 12:00 Noon
___2. 12:00 Noon - 5:00PM
___3. 5:00PM - 8:00PM 66
___4. After 8:00PM ▱

78 ▱ 79 ▱ 80 ▱

APPENDIX C

Attached is the interviewer training schedule, followed by explanatory comments and pertinent evaluation of the training process.

Interviewer Training Schedule

November 17-20, 1975

Monday, November 17

9:00 a.m.	Completion of forms at Personnel Office Orientation to Community Development and Research projects
12:00-1:00 p.m.	Lunch
1:00-5:00 p.m.	Orientation to survey research: Definitions Steps in a survey Interviewing: Interviewer's role Interviewing techniques Relevant example(s) of survey research

Tuesday, November 18

8:00 a.m.	Introduction to survey instrument (Questionnaire) Practice interviewing (role playing)
12:00-1:00 p.m.	Lunch
1:00-5:00 p.m.	Guest Speaker: Hubert Thomas from Department of Community Affairs, sharing experiences of working with the rural poor Study and practice period

Wednesday, November 19

8:00 a.m	Introduction to sampling procedures and individual assignments
9:00 a.m.	Practice interviewing in Leon and Wakulla Counties (pretesting of questionnaire)
12:00-1:00 p.m.	Lunch
1:00-2:00 p.m.	Share interviewing experiences
2:00 p.m.	Guest Speaker: George Henry of Cooperative Extension Service, Leon County
	Guest Speaker: V. L. Elkins, Cooperative Extension Service, FAMU - UF

Thursday, November 20

8:00 a.m.	Map reading and sampling procedures: Making interviewing plans
	County contacts
	Review of interviewing techniques
12:00-1:00 p.m.	Lunch
1:00-5:00 p.m.	Administrative details: Respondent contact forms and questionnaires
	Evaluation of training

Comments and Evaluation of Training

First Day

The first day was, for the most part, a general introduction and orientation to the project, the role of the interviewer, sampling, and the use of maps. Various materials were used to provide necessary background information, including a handout of scientific definitions commonly encountered in survey research (e.g., professional interviewer, respondent, rapport, probing, verbatim recording, opinion questions, factual questions, call-backs, area probability sampling, etc.). Also provided were handouts adapted from interviewing manuals published by the University of Michigan Institute for Social Research and the University of Chicago National Opinion Research Center.[1] These materials included "Steps in Conducting a Survey," "A Brush-up on Interviewing Techniques," and "Building a Good Interviewing Relationship."

As it turned out, this first day needed more variety. Since forms were delayed in arrival at the Personnel Office and could not be completed until later in the training, other activities could have been incorporated. For example, it might have been beneficial to schedule a slide presentation about rural low income people or some previous project conducted by the Center for Community Development and Research. In general, however, the information covered on the first day was both necessary and appropriate in this stage of the training process.

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[1] Interviewers Manual (Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1969) and Manual of Procedures for Hiring and Training Interviewers (Chicago: National Opinion Research Center, University of Chicago, 1972).

Second Day

On the second day the entire questionnaire was reviewed, question by question. Differences between factual questions and opinion/attitude questions in relation to the objectivity of the interviewer had been discussed on the first day of training, so when the questionnaire was reviewed, the differences between Part A (factual questions) and Parts B and C (opinion questions) were especially noted. After the review of the questionnaire, all investigators role played interviews, applying the guidelines learned about objective interviewing, introduction of the project to the respondents, and assessment of eligibility of the respondents.

In the afternoon session, a guest speaker, Hubert Thomas, made a presentation on community development to the group. Mr. Thomas, a housing specialist from the Department of Community Affairs, shared his experience of working with this target population, and although his orientation was service rather than research, the group benefitted from this exposure to a different approach to a common goal.

Following the afternoon session, the investigators went into the field to conduct practice interviews, i.e., with someone in the community or a family member.

Third Day

The investigators were informed about the racial composition of the low income population in their assigned counties. In addition, the procedure for obtaining the sample was explained. Each field staff member could select the county in which to begin interviewing, but this choice was somewhat limited by the procedure of assigning field staff to counties where the low income population was predominantly of the interviewer's race.

The field staff were then sent out for the remainder of the morning to pretest the questionnaire through practice interviews in Leon and Wakulla Counties. Two investigators returned before noon, having been refused interviews by white respondents who saw the name "Florida A & M" on the questionnaire. The method of stapling the questionnaire at this time was to assemble it in one piece for convenience; the interviewer would complete Part A and then hand it to the respondent to complete Parts B and C. Apparently, this was how one white respondent realized that the sponsoring institution was FAMU. After discussion of the practice interviews (and the refusals) it was decided to staple the questionnaires in two sections (Part A as one, and Parts B and C as the other).

An afternoon guest speaker was George Henry of the Cooperative Extension Service who spoke to the group about his long experience in working with the rural poor. Another guest speaker, V. L. Elkins of the Cooperative Extension Service, Florida A & M University - University of Florida, was scheduled for the afternoon session but was unable to appear.

Fourth Day

The investigators were given two copies of a map of each section in their assigned counties and one county map. On each section map was marked the total number of dwellings, the number of interviews needed from that section, and which houses (every second or every third) to interview. The staff were given instructions on reading and using the maps. It was explained that the number of interviews needed per section was an estimate but that the 120 interviews needed per county was an exact figure (adjustments could be made in the office by adding or eliminating roads to reach the exact number).

The procedure for contacting dwellings for interviews was outlined to the investigators as follows:

1. Within each section, begin with a paved road and then alternate unpaved and paved roads.
2. Contact every second or every third dwelling as specified (these instructions regarding intervals allowed for the fact that in each county approximately two-thirds of the dwellings would not contain an eligible respondent).
3. Complete a contact form for each selected dwelling, indicating whether the household is eligible or ineligible according to criteria listed in Table 2 (page 8) and whether its occupants are black or white.
4. If a family is obviously ineligible (well off), do not contact the dwelling.

5. On one map indicate any houses or trailers found in addition to the dwellings already noted, and also mark all dwellings contacted.

6. If an investigator finds him/herself at a dwelling of the opposite race, obtain eligibility information if possible, and return the dwelling contact form (whether or not eligibility has been established) to the office for reassignment to the appropriate interviewer.

During the afternoon session, field staff were given copies of the questionnaire, contact forms, and various forms to be completed for travel and work records. In addition, they were provided with copies of a publication prepared by the Center for Community Development and Research at Florida A & M listing useful booklets and information available to the public free of charge or at low cost to give to all respondents.[2] Instructions were also given to the investigators regarding their responsibilities in contacting the office for reporting purposes.

At the end of the session, field staff members wrote short evaluations of the training program, emphasizing what could be done to improve the training and what was particularly useful.

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[2] Publications of Interest (Tallahassee: Community Development and Research Program, Florida A & M University, 1975).